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AUTHOR Seltz, Nancy C., Ed.; Collier, Helen V., Ed.
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ABSTRACT

This collection of articles and bibliographies was compiled as an educational supplement to six seminars for career counselors serving adult clients in educational institutions and community agencies throughout southern Indiana. Subdivided into six areas of study, the manual parallels the organization of the year-long training program and represents the contributions of researchers, administrators, and practitioners in the field of adult counseling. Each of the six sections contains two to four papers and bibliographic material. Topic headings are (1) The Nature of the Adult Client: Developmental Needs and Behavior, (2) Career Development Needs of Adults, (3) Counseling Needs of Adult Sub-Groups, (4) Educational/Occupational Counseling with Adult Clients, (5) Supportive Services for Adult Clients, and (6) Strategies for Effective Adult Counseling. Titles of some of the major papers are as follows: "Psychosocial Variations Across the Adult Life Course: Frontiers for Research and Policy," "Age Norms, Age Constraints, and Adult Socialization," "Career Development in Adults," "Counseling Blacks," "Spanish-Speaking Americans: Their Manpower Problems and Opportunities," "A Framework for Counseling Women," "Learning the Guided Inquiry Procedures: The Six Steps of Guided Inquiry," "Agency Setting for Career Guidance," "The Adult Learner: Community Resources and Supportive Services," "The Peer Counseling Approach to Adult Counseling," and "Down With the Maintenance State." (JT)

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MEETING THE EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING NEEDS OF ADULTS

Edited by

Nancy C. Seltz
and
Helen V. Collier

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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School of Continuing Studies
Indiana University
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PREFACE

Two decades ago a manual about adult counseling needs would not have been written. Even though adult students have been the historical concern of extension and continuing education programs, only recently have they entered the mainstream of higher education. United States Census Bureau reports have shown that since 1968 enrollment increases in all post-secondary institutions have consisted primarily of older aged part-time students.

The phenomena of adult student involvement in higher education might be seen as a by-product of our complex contemporary society. Just as technological change has become inevitable in business and industry, a reevaluation of educational goals and adaption to new job satisfactions may confront adults several times within their life span. Turning to higher education for knowledge to help them adjust to the discontinuities of their lives, adults have high expectations of the assistance they will receive from institutional services. The special needs of older aged students suggests new responses from post-secondary institutions and a redefinition of the prevailing focus of their student support services.

Counseling, advising, and career planning programs which traditionally have centered on the developmental guidance of adolescents preparing for a life-long work role must accommodate to the more complex requirements of the older student. This modification will require a new frame of reference for counselors and personnel administrators in all post-secondary settings. To respond to the needs of

adult student clients, counselors should understand the developmental stages of adulthood and have a sensitivity to the multiplicity of problems underlying an adult's entry or reentry into the educational process.

An adult's decision to return to school is made in a context of multiple personal responsibilities and emotional demands of their time and energy. Effective counseling must recognise that an adult's self concept is based upon a longer history of life experience than that of an adolescent. Having been initiated into the realities of the working world, and tested their potential for success or failure, adult student clients are inclined to be more pragmatic in educational and career-choice decisions.

As post-secondary institutions modify their support services to accommodate to the needs of older aged students, they also must consider the necessity to retrain their counseling staffs. Scientific study in the areas of adult developmental psychology or adult counseling thus far has been limited to a few academic programs throughout the country. Until the time when degree programs can provide the professional depth needed in this new field, every attempt must be made to encourage an awareness of the educational and occupational planning needs of adults within existing counseling services. Hopefully, the information presented in this collection of readings will help serve this purpose.

Nancy C. Seitz
School of Continuing Studies
Indiana University

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This collection of articles and bibliographies was compiled as an educational supplement to six seminars for career counselors serving adult clients in educational institutions and community agencies throughout southern Indiana. The year-long training program was made possible by funding under the provisions of Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 (The Community Service - Continuing Education Program.)

The success of the seminars and the subsequent publication of this manual is due, in main, to the authorative efforts of a distinguished roster of consultants and faculty. The manual, which is divided into six areas of study, parallels the instructional development of the training program. It represents the contributions of researchers, administrators, and practitioners in the new professional field of adult counseling.

Under the guidance and expertise of Lillian Troll, Alan Entine, Nancy Schlossberg, and Mary Tatum Howard, the first three sections present a theoretical perspective of adult developmental behavior. The later sections, prepared by Helen Farmer, Elinor Waters, and Frank DiSilvestro, concentrate on effective counseling techniques and supportive services for adult clients.

The School of Continuing Studies at Indiana University was fortunate to have Helen V. Collier as the coordinator of the year-long training program. Dr. Collier was responsible for the management and evaluation of the seminars and the compilation of the supplementary educational materials. In these efforts she was ably assisted by Gordon Goodwin, Mary Jane Smith, and Gail Wettstein, graduate students in the School of Education. Special thanks must be given to Marcelle Moon and Gladys Bastin, the project secretaries.

CONTRIBUTORS

- SAM BINGHAM, Journalist, Boston, Massachusetts
- DONN E. BROLIN, Director, Undergraduate Programs in Rehabilitation Services Education, and Director of Project PRICE, University of Missouri-Columbia
- HELEN V. COLLIER, Coordinator, Adult Counseling Project, Indiana University
- FRANK DiSILVESTRO, Assistant Professor of Continuing Studies, Indiana University
- ALAN D. ENTINE, Assistant Academic Vice President, and Chairman, Mid-career Counseling Program and Studies, State University of New York, Stonybrook
- HELEN S. FARMER, Assistant Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Illinois
- JANE GGODMAN, Counselor and Trainer, Continuum Center for Adult Counseling and Leadership Training, Division of Continuing Education, Oakland University
- MARY TATUM HOWARD, Dean of Student Services, Hostos Community College, CUNY
- JOHN C. LOWE, graduate student, University of Chicago
- JOHN W. LOUGHARY, Associate Dean, Division of Developmental Studies and Services, College of Education, University of Oregon
- MARJORIE FISKE LOWENTHAL, Professor in Residence, Department of Psychiatry, University of California Medical School, San Francisco
- JOAN W. MOORE, Associate Professor of Sociology, University of California, Riverside
- BERNICE L. NEUGARTEN, Professor of Human Development, University of Chicago
- JANET RIDDELL, Journalist, Boston, Massachusetts
- THERESA M. RIPLEY, Assistant Professor, and Coordinator of Career Planning, University of Oregon
- NANCY K. SCHLOSSBERG, Professor of Education, University of Maryland, College Park, and Consultant, State Education Department of Maryland
- NANCY C. SELTZ, Director, Adult Counseling Project, Associate Director of Programs, School of Continuing Studies, and Assistant Professor of Continuing Education, Indiana University
- LILLIAN E. TROLL, Chairperson, Department of Psychology, University College, The Rutgers State University
- CLEMMONT E. VONTRESS, Associate Professor of Education, George Washington University
- SYLVIA WALWORTH, Counselor and Trainer, Continuum Center for Adult Counseling and Leadership Training, Division of Continuing Education, Oakland University
- ELINOR B. WATERS, Director, Continuum Center for Adult Counseling and Leadership Training, Division of Continuing Education, Oakland University

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SEMINAR I MATERIALS

The Nature of the Adult Client: Developmental Needs and Behavior

Dr. Lillian Troll, Chairperson
Department of Psychology
University College
The Rutgers State University
Author: Development in Early and Middle Adulthood

Psychosocial Variations Across The Adult Life Course: Frontiers for Research and Policy

By

Marjorie Fiske Lowenthal
University of California, San Francisco

Although over a year has passed, I find myself still deeply moved by the honor the members of this Society bestowed on me with the 1973 Kleemeier Award, the more so because our Human Development Program largely addresses itself to research problems that do not lend themselves to the elegant experimental precision reflected in the work of the scholar whom this award honors.

This paper could not have been written without the sustained commitment of a group of scholars, both senior and graduate students, one which has by no means fulfilled the prophecy made by our mentors years ago that inter-disciplinary as contrasted with multi-disciplinary programs are inevitably short-lived. The Award thus gives encouragement not only to our group, but to many elsewhere, that such efforts hold promise of eventually fulfilling the prediction of Kenneth Boulding ([1956] 1963) who, several years ago, wrote:

> There is something abroad which might be called an inter-disciplinary movement...It may be, however, that what we are witnessing is not so much the unification of knowledge as its restructuring...forced upon us by the very growth of knowledge itself...There can be little doubt, however, that, if the restructuring...is under way, it will eventually be recognized officially. Until then, [these structures] will have to live in an underworld...of deviant professors, gifted amateurs, and moderate crackpots.

The Human Development and Aging Program on our campus is now about a decade and a half old, evolving from large scale studies of normal and abnormal aging of which Dr. Alexander Simon, recently retired Professor and Chairman of the Department of Psychiatry and Director of the Langley Porter Neurophychiatric Institute, and I were co-investigators. Among those joining the staff in the early period were Professors Margaret Clark, and later, Christie Kiefer, anthropologists, who have conducted cross-cultural studies of aging and of ethnic identity from an adult life course perspective. This important work is now being continued cross-nationally, coordinated by Dr. Kiefer, in the form of long-term longitudinal studies of the adult life course, in collaboration with scholars in anthropology and in psychiatry at the University of California and the University of Tokyo.

Before reporting on more recent research, it seems appropriate to summarize conclusions from our earlier aging studies, both because they continue to have relevance and because they constitute a cautionary tale of the unconcionable time lag between the emergence of research data and its influence on policy and planning for older segments of our population. One plea for policy change in the area of the delivery of health services resulted from finding an unexpected prevalence of Acute Brain Syndrome among 500 elderly first admissions to San Francisco General Hospital psychiatric wards. Since this syndrome is always associated with physical illness or malnutrition, and is, with adequate treatment, reversible, the need for short-term inpatient treatment facilities staffed by both psychiatrists and internists was obvious. At that time we pleaded in vain, for the State authorities said it was a City or County responsibility, and the latter, lacking funds, that it has to be assumed by the State (this is obviously a state of affairs by no means unique to California). There are now encouraging signs that such a facility may soon be established in a private medical center in the area, but a time lag of 13 or 14 years is far too long, and heedless of the pressing needs of our elderly population.

A second recommendation, growing out of a 2-year panel study of 600 older community-resident aged, opportunities for serious educational pursuits for those many late middle-aged and older people who, after years of largely occupational and family commitments, wish to broaden their interests, reorient their careers, or both. This recommendation, first made at a symposium jointly sponsored by Langley Porter Institute and the American Psychiatric Association nearly a decade ago, is also now bearing modest fruit. Again, however, the initial response has come from private sources, in this instance in the form of a pilot program under the auspices of the Alfred and Hanna Fromm Fund. More recently, prompted by the interest of State's Joint Committee on Aging, a pilot study has been established to make recommendations about the role of the University and other institutions of higher education in research and education relating to older segments of the population. Dr. Carroll Estes, staff sociologist and coordinator of our graduate training program, will, as a member of the State Commission on Aging, represent the University in this context. These are promising signs, but in the 10-year interval, these pressing social needs have been largely unmet. Another recommendation, therefore, growing out of our acute awareness of the serious time lag between research publications and their impact on policy, is that funds be designated specifically for graduate work to the Master's and to the PhD levels, to train younger and older people who have special gifts in the communication field. Such training would focus on the assessment of research data and research methods, and the interpretation and translation of them into recommendations for those who plan and conduct action programs, as well as for the public at large. Parallel to this, we might begin to plan training programs for about-to-retire professionals in our fields which would help them to master some of the media arts toward the further dissemination of their work and that of other scholars. What we need in adult development and aging is the kind of expertise which Albert Deutsch so effectively provided in the field of mental health many years ago.

To continue in the area of graduate level education, I should like briefly to mention another recommendation growing out of our program as well as those of colleagues at other training centers: namely, systematically to explore concepts of a number of disciplines, in order to locate potentially useful building blocks toward the eventual development of an interdisciplinary science of adult development and aging. Historically, the field grew out of the gradual convergence of

child development teaching and research on the one hand, and work in aging on the other. Both fields at their differing periods of inception received strong impetus from the pressure of social problems, first those relating to child welfare, and later those stemming from the rapid increase in the proportion of older people in our society. The original thrust of interest in child development overlapped with the then fresh impact of Freudian and neo-Freudian analytical theory. Interest in growth, stabilization, and regression in the adult life course, on the other hand, tended to reflect backward from studies of the periods of senescence and very advanced old age. The major issues were those of the pressing needs of this expanding older cohort. There was then little need for theory. Great strides have been taken toward meeting these needs by former and present leaders of this Society, and we still have a long way to go before they will adequately be met. At the same time modest but significant steps have been taken by scattered groups of researchers and teachers who believe that we need to know more about adaptive processes in earlier stages of adulthood to better understand how to foster them among the aging population.

Practical objectives aside, many of us, students and older professionals alike, are finding the processes of psychosocial change in adulthood highly challenging in their own right. Not least of the challenge stems from the fact that the theories of child development, and those few developed in regard to aging, while indispensable, are not sufficient. Our main task in this new field, as, among others, George Maddox and Klaus Riegel have aptly pointed out from their respective standpoints as sociologist and psychologist, is to begin slowly, stone by stone, to erect conceptual structures--probably several of them for the time being--useful for addressing issues of change across the adult life course which, because of their immense complexity, have often been felt to be the proper province primarily of novelists, biographers, and historians.

One way to begin to locate the building blocks for such an endeavor is to make sure that we have thoroughly mined the theoretical bases of all the social and behavioral sciences, including history, economics, and political science, for potentially useful concepts (or even far-out hunches) that might be worth testing from an adult life course perspective. This sort of theoretically-oriented teaching in adult development and aging has long been a tradition at a few universities and seems to be developing in other centers in this country and abroad--among the latter notably at Tavistock in England and the Sigmund Freud Institute in Frankfurt. A second recommendation for the training of present and future students, therefore, is that thoroughgoing analysis of the concepts, classical, neo-classical, and contemporary, in the social and behavioral sciences for their potential applicability to aging processes be dramatically stepped up, perhaps at least to the point where each student has a grasp of relevant concepts in at least two of these disciplines. While similar mingling with the basic health sciences might yield some parallels and suggest integrative models, this may be too ambitious a plan for the near future. In the more limited fields of social and behavioral research, I share Susanne Langer's (1967) view that:

> It is even conceivable that the study of mental and social phenomena will never be 'natural science' in the familiar sense at all, but will always be more akin to history, which is a highly developed discipline...

In other words, the study of psychosocial aspects of developmental and aging processes in whole human beings should become a rigorous and complex analytic discipline, and we should feel none the less scholarly if our complex questions make it impossible for us to utilize the methods of natural science.

A second source of building blocks with which we may gradually erect conceptual structures more adequate to the study of psychosocial change in adulthood is of course empirical data which, if we maintain sufficient open-mindedness, often in turn direct us to more pathways, where one that opens up proves ample reward for a vain exploration of 100 blind alleys. The rest of this paper is devoted to a brief report on one such a study.

I shall primarily summarize the work of the interdisciplinary team responsible for what is known as the Transitions-Longitudinal Study,[3] which includes, in addition to myself, Dr. Thurnher, anthropologist, and psychologists Drs. Chiriboga and Pierce, with, particularly in the early stages, important and critical contributions of Professor Rosow, sociologist. The analysis thus far has been predominantly of cross-sectional data, which are more fully reported in a book now in press (Lowenthal, Thurnher, Chiriboga and Associates, 1975). First I shall summarize a few life course changes implicit in these cross-sectional data and later insert a few last-minute follow-up findings, to offer support for, or refutation of, some of the implications of the cross-sectional material.

Although we are also studying younger adults, this report will focus primarily on people in middle and late middle age. The groups we studied are relatively small (216 in all), but carefully drawn samples from the middle and lower-middle class (both blue and white collar), largely Caucasian, population in a metropolitan area. We have no reason to believe that they are not, in the psychosocial issues with which we are concerned, representative of their life stage and class counterparts elsewhere in the country. Dramatic sex differences are a running theme, one recurring, with variations, across all four life stages. In fact, sex differences were consistently of a higher magnitude than life stage differences, and this was true in nearly all of the psychosocial areas covered in the very detailed interview sessions. Indeed, the life course trajectories--and in turn the needs, goals, and problems--of men and women not only do not parallel each other, but at points seem to threaten a potential collision course.

As to their sociopolitical potential, that these cohorts are not likely to have much political impact now or in the future is a conclusion based on their highly fragmented concern with social and political issues, concern which is all too frequently limited to problems which impinge on them personally, such as taxes and safety on the streets. Their anomic stance toward the efficacy of any conceivable

3. Grant HD03051, and HD05941, NICHD. Several of the concepts explored in this study are being studied by anthropologists in the Human Development group in a variety of other cultures, HD02656.

role for people like themselves, even at the community level, and a marked suspicion of politics and political figures on the local, state, national, and international levels, it should be noted, were assessed before Watergate, the energy crisis, and the resignation of former President Nixon. A few of these middle-aged and older men indicated a certain readiness to personally defend their property and values by force if necessary. The extent to which this circumstance is an historical legacy from the Old West or a response to current social, political, and economic change remains an open question, but the combination of economic anxiety, political alienation, and, more rarely, private collections of arms and ammunition, is somewhat disconcerting.

As to psychosocial problems among people who were approaching the post-parental and retirement stages when we first studied them, from a broad array of such issues, I shall touch upon those having to do with perceptions of stress, of the pending transitions, of perspectives on the future, and some of the personal and social resources and impediments which apparantly help or hinder efforts to cope with the inevitable life course changes that accompany the aging process. The study was designed in part to test the rather optimistic self-actualization concepts of such theorists as Allport, Maslow, Erikson, Charlotte Bühler, and Fromm, concepts largely drawn from research among samples of Harvard students and other talented and privileged individuals, including perhaps a measure of introspection about the authors' talented and privileged selves. People in our sample, on the other hand, are in that increasing segment of the population which is beginning to assimilate some of the values of the upper-middle class, but remains primarily security and family-oriented.

Indeed family-centeredness was a dominant theme in the protocols. Parenthood was the main transition envisaged by the young, and work, education, and marriage were viewed largely as a means to that end. Although we saw signs of expansiveness, experimentation, and interest in personal growth among the young men, they primarily hoped to emulate the life styles of the parent generation, and it would appear that they will eventually accede to the nesting inclinations which make up the major goals of the young women. Older men, for whom the stage of active parenting was about to be over, seemed to be mustering their strength to get themselves through another 10 or 15 years on the job, so that their style of life would not have to be too drastically altered at retirement. The women approaching the post-parental stage showed signs of being in a painful if not critical stage. Many expressed a desire for growth and self-assertion, a wish to break out of the family confines, but because of both personal and social blocks, they could envisage few realistic possibilities for doing so.

Under these circumstances, judging from women a decade older, those confronting retirement, the solution seemed to be to accept the need for self-assertion, but to settle for the more obvious channel open to them for realizing it: namely, becoming more dominant in the family, especially in relation to their husbands,

but sometimes in regard to their grown children as well. They tended to adopt a more maternal role in the marital relationship than did the younger middle-aged women, and thus, albeit sometimes grudgingly, met the increasing needs of their husbands for a domestically comfortable if not pampered existence. Despite evidence of some aspirations of their own which extended beyond the family, wives, especially those at the preretirement stage, seemed to agree with the husbands, who have social norms and the press of the younger generation on the job market on their side, that the time had come for a well-earned rest and a measure of self-indulgence. While the men about to retire attached considerable value to their anticipated release from responsibility, such freedom was not usually viewed as an opportunity to develop or pursue more gratifying pursuits. Their objective, rather, was survival in good health, in a context of "no more hassles." Many were preoccupied with evaluating or perhaps rewriting the past, and their projections of the future were considerably more foreshortened than that of people about to enter the post-parental phase.

Somewhat to our surprise, reports covering the preceding 4 years revealed a decline across the successive stages in circumstances considered stressful, with a sharp drop between newlyweds and the middle-aged, but only slight differences between the middle-aged confronting the post-parental stage and those 10 years older who expected to retire within a few years. True to form, women in all stages reported more stressful experiences than men. Work-related stresses were critical for the middle-aged men, mostly stemming from lack of occupational advancement and anxieties about retirement income. In view of the fact that the majority of these men were firmly entrenched in the probable security of civil service and related bureaucracies (indeed most of them selected such work primarily because of its security), and above all in view of the comparative remoteness of their retirement (10-15 years), it would appear that much of this preoccupation is attributable to a combination of job frustration and economic and political factors which they perceived as beyond their control. Traumatized early by the Great Depression, men at this life stage feared another one (and we have been astonished to note the extent to which the economic anxieties of this socioeconomic group in this life stage have been transmitted to the young of the same socioeconomic group).

The mixture of strain and boredom in the middle-aged men struck us as a threat to their mental and possibly their physical health in succeeding years. To the extent that their apprehension about their financial situation proves realistic, they also constitute a potentially susceptible and numerically large target group for charismatic leaders. As to the occupational boredom among men who are very likely to remain vigorous for another 20 years, it clearly suggests the urgency of serious and immediate planning for second career training programs in both the public and private sectors, opportunities now limited to more privileged groups where second careers are increasingly pursued.

The older men, those who confronted imminent retirement, were not as anxious about their financial security, although it should be noted that the baseline field work was conducted well before the current and very dramatic increase in an inflationary trend. At that time, they felt that they had accomplished whatever they

could in the way of a financial base for the retirement stage and were relatively comfortable about their prospects. Their concerns focused on the development of a satisfying life style for themselves and their wives, and to ways of making the time left to them as easy-going as possible.

But not all of these two older cohorts of men were, respectively, anomic or hedonistic in their conscious stance toward the future. Roughly a third were in the category which we call, in a stress typology reported elsewhere, the challenged (Lowenthal & Chiriboga, 1973). These men had had and continued to have considerable presumptive stress but did not dwell on it. In some ways they resembled the Type A reported by Friedman and Rosenman (1974), hard-driving, comparatively ambitious men whom these authors found to be at risk of heart attack or stroke. They were intelligent and the least likely to have developed self-protective life styles. Some of them, while judged psychologically "well adapted" by the reviewing psychiatrist, were indeed suffering from physical illness or impairment. Pradoxically, however, their own appraisals of their health status were far more optimistic than was true for those (physically healthier) men who, while also exposed to much stress, felt much freer to complain about it. One might conclude that the stress reactions of the challenged men were in the physical sphere, whereas those more likely to dwell on or perhaps "live through" their stresses may be of the verbal response type (distinctions also noted in laboratory studies of response to stress [Lazarus & Alfert, 1964]).

Despite the manifest boredom with jobs and uneasiness about finances among the middle-aged men, on nearly all counts, the women confronting the post-parental period appeared to be in a considerably more critical state. They were vague and diffuse in regard to the stresses which may have accounted for their extreme malaise, which alternated with anxiety. While they said that they were in general pleased by the prospects of the youngest child leaving home, they had a much less positive stance toward the future than the older women. In fact, women facing the empty nest were more negative, apprehensive, and at the same time inarticulate, about their pending transition than any other group we studied. They were also far more likely to report an increase in marital problems, a state of affairs not reflected in the reports of their male counterparts, nor in those of the older women. Regardless of the amount of presumptive stress to which they had been exposed, it was these middle-aged women (whose average age was 48) who were the more preoccupied with it than any of the other seven groups, while the highly stressed middle-aged men were the least so. These women also had far more psychiatric symptions than people in any other group and were most likely to rank low on other adaptive measures. Their adaptive level, too, was adversely affected if they had experienced loss or absence of one or both parents in their own childhoods.

The older women, those confronting retirement (average age 58), were less likely to be suffering from a wide array of symptoms and somewhat less likely to continue to be influenced by parental deprivation in their own childhood than were the women facing the empty nest (the men at middle-aged and preretirement stages, unlike younger men and many women, showed little sign of still suffering from the effects of any early parental deprivation they may have had experienced). A significant proportion of these older women were more assertive than those at the empty nest stage--for example, more likely to rate themselves fairly high on masculine traits, to call themselves boss in the family, and to be more strongly motivated to do something on their own outside the family sphere. At the same time, the older women

reported a strange mixture of positive and negative self-images, as though they were having role conflicts. While their urge to undertake activities outside the family sphere was stronger than that of women 10 years younger, realistic planning was almost as rare--perhaps due to the encroachment of the increasing dependency needs and demands of their husbands, as well as to social strictures and roadblocks. In view of the notably higher adaptive level of the older women, an obvious hypothesis is that the younger ones, facing the empty nest, may have been going through some sort of developmental crisis which becomes at least partially resolved as they later begin to cope with the change in life style.

Among men, but interestingly enough not among women, there was a tendency noted across the four adult life stages for interpersonal resources to increasingly serve as buffers against preoccupation with stress and to be associated with a relatively positive stance toward the next transition and the future in general. Those of you familiar with our earlier work on intimacy, based on much larger and older samples, may be interested to learn that the most telling of these resources was the capacity for mutuality in dyadic relationships (Lowenthal & Haven, 1968).

The stage differences in the psychological resources of women were less clear. For about half of the two older cohorts, the traditional ones of familial roles and affect and a highly feminine self-concept were as important as for younger women, whereas for another group, especially the better educated and more intelligent, intrapersonal factors such as judged competence, a subjective sense of competence, a positive and a more masculine self-image were important psychological buffers, or, if you will, mediators between stress and adaption. There is some support for Freud's thesis ([1933] 1965) that the middle-aged women may have been working through a resurgence of oedipal problems and that those who more or less succeeded in doing so became free to shift roles and--were educational and occupational channels open--to make an active contribution to society. Their frustrations tended to resemble those of the challenged men, and presumably their potential for some form of self-actualization might be realized were they not confronted with roadblocks and prejudices.

These observations, I should add, reinforce those based on a detailed analysis of our adaptive indicators, namely, that it was the psychologically less complex, who had sought and developed self-protective, stress-avoidant life styles, who were aging most contentedly (Chiriboga & Lowenthal, 1972). Trajectories of the more complex women went in the opposite direction from those of all but the challenged men, who seemed content with what they had accomplished thus far and wanted only to relax into a life style best described as dependent and comfortable, spiked now and then with a bit of hedonism. To the extent that the newly ambitious older women were married to men becoming increasingly dependent, it seems likely that their role conflict will be resolved, or more likely suppressed, as the need for nurturance on the part of their husbands supplants that of their now departed children. Lacking other outlets, these are the women whose husbands will begin to complain (as some already were) about their wives becomming too bossy and whose adult children may well complain about interference.

Follow-up data which became available only after the preceding section had been written turn out to support some of the change implications of the cross-sectional data and to refute others. In regard to sociopolitical involvement, contrary to our expectations, it is not the oldest men, many of whom are now living on fixed retirement income (and who also presumably have more time to think about nonoccupational matters), but the middle-aged, most of whom have jobs where salary increases are at least somewhat adjusted to inflationary trends, whose concern with sociopolitical and economic issues increased in the 5-year period which included Watergate and a near-runaway inflation. The oldest men tended to remain philosophical or, more likely, resigned, with only about half as many of them as of the middle-aged reporting more concern with such issues than at the base line. Interestingly, nearly half of the women in these two life stage cohorts had become more concerned with sociopolitical matters, a finding which lends modest support to our thesis about the potential for horizon-broadening among women in the post-parental phase of life.

Our thesis about the importance of taking preoccupation with stress as well as amount of exposure to stress into account (Lowenthal & Chiriboga, 1973) finds support in the longitudinal data, but only for men: those heavily preoccupied with stress, whether exposed to much or little of it, were more likely to have had a serious illness in the 5-year interval and to report more psychological symptoms. The challenged men--heavily stressed but not preoccupied with it--are evidently not identical with Friedman and Rosenman's Type A, since they were not as likely as the stress-preoccupied to develop physical illness or psychological symptoms in the 5-year interval. That there was no relationship between stress type and illness among women may in part be a consequence of the fact that they were very few challenged women at any life stage.

Nearly twice as many of the women whose youngest child had left home in the 5-year interval, in comparison with men at the same stage, reported themselves as happier 5 years later than they were at the time of the baseline. All but one of these happier women had made expansive changes in their lives which they themselves had initiated: new training, new jobs, new houses, new husbands or boyfriends, or lengthy trips abroad. This finding lends some support to our original hypothesis that the anticipatory stage just prior to the post-parental period constitutes a critical period for family-centered women, which for some presages further growth.

The implications for policy and planning of our data seem rather self-evident. The potential for contributions to society of the more ambitious of the middle-aged and older women and of the somewhat smaller group of men ready for second careers or commitments appears to be considerable. But re-educational opportunities merely superimposed on current systems are not likely to change the situation markedly. What is needed is a kind of life course orientation in all of our social, educational, and economic institutions which should be introduced at least at level of secondary education.

The Women's Liberation Movement and indications of secular changes in sex roles notwithstanding, we see as yet few signs of change among the adolescents and young adults in the socioeconomic groups we are studying. The present and projected life styles of these young people remain predominantly family-centered and male-dominated. As though reflecting on their parents' prospects, they at best envisaged

for themselves at post-parental and retirement stages little more than financial security and comfort and freedom from the occupational and familial responsibilities they plan to assume and complete in the meantime. On the other hand, we all see changes among a substantial proportion of students, especially those at the graduate level in academic and professional settings. It is they who are making the innovations in regard to traditional sex roles and who also are beginning to demand a life course perspective in the social sciences and in clinical and other professional training programs as well. There is some encouraging evidence that these values are beginning to be attended by the educational establishment itself.

These shifts in perspectives on sex roles and on the life course bode well for a society in which those beyond the so-called prime of life remain integrated within its vital institutions rather than segregated in retirement communities or institutions of their own. Until such developmental if not evolutionary changes thoroughly permeate our educational, social, and economic institutions and organizations we must hasten to provide some temporary stop-gaps, such as serious educational programs for the middle-aged and older segments, including those from nonprivileged sectors and ethnic minorities; seriously to explore the possibilities of voluntary retirement age and training for new occupations and careers for middle-aged men and women alike; and to endeavor in imaginative ways to offset the predilection for youth in both the public and the private sectors. Otherwise we may well find ourselves with an increasing proportion of frustrated late middle-aged and "young-old" (Neugarten, 1974) people whose personal solution may be to adopt the sick role for another 20 or 30 years of so-called living, thus wreaking a perhaps legitimate revenge on a society which has denied them alternatives.

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Age Norms, Age Constraints, and Adult Socialization

By

Bernice L. Neugarten
Joan W. Moore
John C. Lowe

Committee on Human Development
University of Chicago

In all societies, age is one of the bases for the ascription of status and one of the underlying dimensions by which social interaction is regulated. Anthropologists have studied age-grading in simple societies, and sociologists in the tradition of Mannheim have been interested in the relations between generations; but little systematic attention has been given to the ways in which age groups relate to each other in complex societies or to systems of norms which refer to age-appropriate behavior. A promising group of theoretical papers which appeared twenty or more years ago have now become classics,[2] but with the exceptions of a major contribution by Eisenstadt and a provocative paper by Berger,[3] little theoretical or empirical work has been done in this area in the two decades that have intervened, and there has been little development of what might be called a sociology of age.

The present paper deals with two related issues: first, with the degree of constraint perceived with regard to age norms that operate in American society;

2. Following the classic article by Karl Mannheim ("The Problem of Generations," Essays on the Sociology of Knowledge [New York: Oxford University Press, 1952], pp. 276-322), these include Ralph Linton's discussion in The Study of Man (New York: Appleton-Century, 1936); Ruth Benedict, "Continuities and Discontinuities in Culture Conditioning," Psychiatry, I (1938), 161-67; Kingsley Davis, "The Sociology of Parent-Youth Conflict," American Sociological Review, V (1940), 523-35; and Talcott Parsons, "Age and Sex in the Social Structure of the United States," American Sociological Review, VII (October, 1942), 604-16. Anthropological classics include Arnold Van Gennep (1908), The Rites of Passage (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960); Robert H. Lowie (1920), Primitive Society (New York: Harper & Bros., 1961). More recently, A. H. J. Prins, East African Age-Class Systems (Groningen: J. B. Wolters, 1953) has presented a critical analysis of concepts and terms in use among anthropologists.

3. S. N. Eisenstadt, From Generation to Generation (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1956); and Bennett M. Berger, "How Long is a Generation?" British Journal of Sociology, XI (1960), 10-23.

second, with adult socialization to those norms.[4] Preliminary to presenting the data that bear upon these issues, however, a few comments regarding the age-norm system and certain illustrative observations gathered earlier may help to provide context for this study.

Background Concepts and Observations

Expectations regarding age-appropriate behavior form an elaborated and pervasive system of norms governing behavior and interaction, a net work of expectations that is imbedded throughout the cultural fabric of adult life. There exists what might be called a prescriptive timetable for the ordering of major life events: a time in the life span when men and women are expected to marry, a time to raise children, a time to retire. This normative pattern is adhered to, more or less consistently, by most persons in the society. Although the actual occurrences of major life events for both men and women are influenced by a variety of life contingencies, and although the norms themselves vary somewhat from one group of persons to another, it can easily be demonstrated that norms and actual occurrences are closely related. Age norms and age expectations operate as prods and brakes upon behavior, in some instances hastening an event, in others delaying it. Men and women are aware not only of the social clocks that operate in various areas of their lives, but they are aware also of their own timing and readily describe themselves as "early," "late," or "one time" with regard to family and occupational events.

Age norms operate also in many less clear-cut ways and in more peripheral areas of adult life as illustrated in such phrases as "He's too old to be working so hard" or "She's too young to wear that style of clothing" or "That's a strange thing for a man of his age to say." The concern over age-appropriate behavior is further illustrated by colloquialisms such as "Act your age!" -- an exhortation made to the adult as well as to the child in this society.

Such norms, implicit or explicit, are supported by a wide variety of sanctions ranging from those, on the one hand, that relate directly to the physical health of the transgressor to those, on the other hand, that stress the deleterious effects of the transgression on other persons. For example, the fifty-year-old man who insists on a strenuous athletic life is chastised for inviting an impairment of his own health; a middle-aged woman who dresses like an adolescent brings into question her husband's good judgment as well as her own; a middle-aged couple who decide to have another child are criticized because of the presumed embarrassment to their adolescent or married children. Whether affecting the self or others, age norms and accompanying sanctions are relevant to a great variety of adult behaviors; they are both systematic and pervasive in American society.

4. With some exceptions, such as the work of Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1957), sociologists have as yet given little attention to the broader problem of adult socialization.

Despite the diversity of value patterns, life styles, and reference groups that influence attitudes, a high degree of consensus can be demonstrated with regard to age-appropriate and age-linked behaviors as illustrated by data shown in Table 1. The table shows how responses were distributed when a representative sample of middle-class men and women aged forty to seventy[5] were asked such questions as: "What do you think is the best age for a man to

TABLE 1

CONSENSUS IN A MIDDLE CLASS MIDDLE-AGED SAMPLE REGARDING VARIOUS AGE-RELATED CHARACTERISTICS

	Age Range Designated as Appropriate or Expected	Per Cent Who Concur	
		Men (N = 50)	Women (N = 43)
Best age for a man to marry	20–25	80	90
Best age for a woman to marry	19–24	85	90
When most people should become grandparents	45–50	84	79
Best age for most people to finish school and go to work	20–22	86	82
When most men should be settled on a career	24–26	74	64
When most men hold their top jobs	45–50	71	58
When most people should be ready to retire	60–65	83	86
A young man	18–22	84	83
A middle-aged man	40–50	86	75
An old man	65–75	75	57
A young woman	18–24	89	88
A middle-aged woman	40–50	87	77
An old woman	60–75	83	87
When a man has the most responsibilities	35–50	79	75
When a man accomplishes most	40–50	82	71
The prime of life for a man	35–50	86	80
When a woman has the most responsibilities	25–40	93	91
When a woman accomplishes most	30–45	94	92
A good-looking woman	20–35	92	82

5. The sample was drawn by area-probability methods (a 2 per cent listing of households in randomly selected census tracts) with the resulting pool of cases then stratified by age, sex, and socio-economic status. Using the indexes of occupation level of education, house type, and area of residence, these respondents were all middle class. The data were gathered in connection with the Kansas City Studies of Adult Life, a research program carried out over a period of years under the direction of Robert J. Havighurst, William E. Henry, Bernice L. Neugarten, and other members of the Committee on Human Development, University of Chicago.

marry?...to finish school?" "What age comes to your mind when you think of a 'young' man?...an 'old' man?" "At what age do you think a man has the most responsibilities?....accomplishes the most?"[6]

The consensus indicated in the table is not limited to persons residing in a particular region of the United States or to middle-aged persons. Responses to the same set of questions were obtained from other middle-class groups: one group of fifty men and women aged twenty to thirty residing in a second midwestern city, a group of sixty Negro men and women aged forty to sixty in a third midwestern city, and a group of forty persons aged seventy to eighty in a New England community. Essentially the same patterns emerged in each set of data.

The Problem and the Method

Based upon various sets of data such as those illustrated in Table 1, the present investigation proceeded on the assumption that age norms and age expectations operate in this society as a system of social control. For a great variety of behaviors, there is a span of years within which the occurrence of a given behavior is regarded as appropriate. When the behavior occurs outside that span of years, it is regarded as inappropriate and is negatively sanctioned.

The specific questions of this study were these: How do members of the society vary in their perception of the strictures involved in age norms, or in the degree of constraint they perceive with regard to age-appropriate behaviors? To what extent are personal attitudes congruent with the attitudes ascribed to the generalized other? Finally, using this congruence as an index of socialization, can adult socialization to age norms be shown to occur as respondents themselves increase in age?

6. For each item in the table, the percentages that appear in the third and fourth columns obviously vary directly with the breadth of the age span shown for that item. The age span shown was, in turn, the one selected by the investigators to produce the most accurate reflection of the consensus that existed in the data.

   The way in which degree of consensus was calculated can be illustrated on "Best age for a man to marry." Individuals usually responded to this item in terms of specific years, such as "20" or "22," or in terms of narrow ranges, such as "from 20 to 23." These responses were counted as consensus within the five-year age range shown in Table 1, on the grounds that the respondents were concurring that the best age was somewhere between twenty and twenty-five. A response such as "18" to "20" or "any time in the 20's," was outside the range regarded as consensus and was therefore excluded.

The instrument.-- A questionnaire was constructed in which the respondent was asked on each of a series of items which of three ages he would regard as appropriate or inappropriate, or which he would approve or disapprove. As seen in the illustrations below, the age spans being proposed were intended to be psychologically rather than chronologically equal in the sense that for some events a broad age span is appropriate, for others, a narrow one.

A woman who feels it's all right at her age to wear a two-piece bathing suit to the beach:

When she's 45 (approve or disapprove)
When she's 30 (approve or disapprove)
When she's 18 (approve or disapprove)

Other illustrative items were:

A woman who decides to have another child
(when she's 45, 37, 30).

A man who's willing to move his family from one town to another to get ahead in his company
(when he's 45, 35, 25).

A couple who like to do the "Twist"
(when they're 55, 30, 20).

A man who still prefers living with his parents rather than getting his own apartment
(when he's 30, 25, 21).

A couple who move across country so they can live near their married children
(when they're 40, 55, 70).

The thirty-nine items finally selected after careful pretesting are divided equally into three types: those that relate to occupational career; those that relate to the family cycle; and a broader grouping that refer to recreation, appearance, and consumption behaviors. In addition, the items were varied systematically with regard to their applicability to three periods: young adulthood, middle age, and old age.

In general, then, the questionnaire presents the respondent with a relatively balanced selection of adult behaviors which were known from pretesting to be successful in evoking age discriminations. A means of scoring was devised whereby the score reflects the degree of refinement with which the respondent makes age discriminations. For instance, the respondent who approves of a couple dancing the "Twist" if they are twenty, but who disapproves if they are thirty, is placing relative age constraint upon this item of behavior as compared to another respondent

who approves the "Twist" both at age twenty and at age thirty, but not at age fifty-five. The higher the score, the more the respondent regards age as a salient dimension across a wide variety of behaviors and the more constraint he accepts in the operation of age norms.[7]

The sample. -- A quota sample of middleclass respondents was obtained in which level of education, occupation, and area of residence were used to determine social class. The sample is divided into six age-sex cells: fifty men and fifty women aged twenty to thirty, one hundred men and one hundred women aged thirty to fifty-five, and fifty men and fifty women aged sixty-five and over. Of the four hundred respondents, all but a few in the older group were or had been married. The great majority were parents of one or more children.

The only known bias in the sample occurs in the oder group (median age for men is sixty-nine; for women seventy-two) where most individuals were members of Senior Citizens clubs and where, as a result, the subsample is biased in the direction of better health and greater community involvement than can be expected for the universe of persons in this age range. While Senior Citizens is a highly age-conscious and highly age-graded association from the perspective of the wider society, there is no evidence that the seventy-year-old who joins is any more or any less aware of age discriminations than

7. For each item of behavior, one of the ages being proposed is scored as the "appropriate" age; another, the "marginal"; and the third, the "inappropriate" (the age at which the behavior is usually proscribed on the basis of its transgression of an age norm). A response which expresses disapproval of only the "inappropriate" age is scored 1, while a response which expresses disapproval of not only the "inappropriate" but also the "marginal" age receives a score of 3. The total possible score is 117, a score that could result only if the respondent were perceiving maximum age constraint with regard to every one of the thirty-nine items. A response which expresses approval or disapproval of all three ages for a given behavior is scored zero, since for that respondent the item is not age-related, at least not within the age range being proposed.

   The "appropriate" age for each item had previously been designated by the investigators on the basis of previous findings such as those illustrated on Table 1 of this report. That the designations were generally accurate was corroborated by the fact that when the present instrument was administered to the four hundred respondents described here, more than 90 per cent of respondents on successive test items checked "approve" for the "appropriate" one of the three proposed ages.

is the seventy-year-old who does not join.[8] The older group was no more or less homogeneous with regard to religious affiliation, ethnic background, or indexes of social class than were the other two age groups in this sample.

Administration. -- To investigate the similarity between personal attitudes and attitudes ascribed to the generalized other, the questionnaire was first administered with instructions to give "your personal opinions" about each of the items; then the respondent was given a second copy of the questionnaire and asked to respond in the way he believed "most people" would respond.[9]

8. On the other hand, members of Senior Citizens are more likely to be activists and to regard themselves as younger in outlook than persons who do not join such groups. If this is true, the age differences to be described in the following sections of this paper might be expected to be even more marked in future studies in which samples are more representative.

9. The problem being studied here related to problems of conformity, deviation, and personal versus public attitudes. As is true of other empirical research in these areas, the terms used here are not altogether satisfactory, in part because of the lack of uniform terminology in this field. For example, while age norms are in some respects related to "attitudinal" and "doctrinal" conformity as posed by Robert K. Merton ("Social Conformity, Deviation, and Opportunity Structures: A Comment on the Contributions of Dubin and Cloward," American Sociological Review, XXIV [1959], 177-189), these data do not fit that analytical framework because age norms are less clear-cut than the norms Merton discusses, and the realms of attitudinal and doctrinal conformity are less prescribed.

Similarly, the projection of personal attitudes upon the generalized other has been studied by Jacob W. Getzels and J. J. Walsh ("The Method of Paired Direct and Projective Questionnaires in the Study of Attitude Structure and Socialization," Psychological Monographs, Vol. LXXVII [Whole No. 454, 1958]); but their theoretical model is not altogether applicable because in the present research the phenomenon of projection cannot be demonstrated. The same lack of fit exists with the concepts used by Milton Rokeach, The Open and Closed Mind (New York: Basic Books, 1960); and with the concepts of social norms, norms of common consent, and personal norms as used by Elizabeth Bott, Family and Social Network (London: Tavistock, 1957). The self, generalized other terminology is therefore regarded as the most appropriate for describing the present data.

Research Notes

In about half the cases, both forms of the instrument were administered consecutively in personal interviews. In the remainder of the cases, responses on the first form were gathered in group sessions (in one instance, a parents' meeting in a school), and the second form was completed later and returned by mail to the investigator.

The two types of administration were utilized about evenly within each age-sex group. No significant differences in responses were found to be due to this difference in procedure of data-gathering.

Findings

The findings of this study can be read from Figure 1. The figure shows a striking convergence with age between the two sets of attitudes.

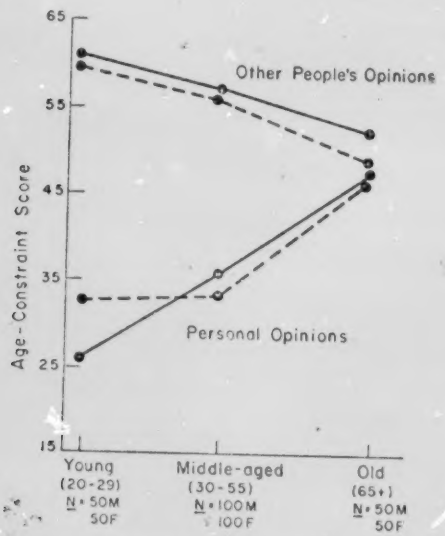

FIG. 1.—Perception of age constraints in adulthood, by age and sex. An analysis of variance for the data on "personal opinions" showed that age was a highly significant variable (*F* is statistically reliable beyond the .001 level); and the interaction between age and sex was significant (*F* is reliable at the .05 level). For the data on "other people's opinions," age alone is a significant variable (*F* is reliable beyond the .001 level). Dotted line, women; solid line, men.

1. Age trends within each set of data are opposite in direction. With regard to personal opinions, there is a highly significant increase in scores with age--that is, an increase in the extent to which respondents ascribe importance to age norms and place constraints upon adult behavior in terms of age appropriateness.

2. With regard to "most people's opinions" there is a significant decrease in scores with age--that is, a decrease in the extent to which age constraints are perceived in the society and attributed to a generalized other.

3. Sex differences are minimal with the exception that young women stand somewhat outside the general trend on "personal opinions," with scores that differentiate them from young men but not from middle-aged women.

Discussion

The difference shown in these data between personal attitudes and attitudes attributed to the generalized other (a finding that holds true for all but the oldest respondents) implies that age norms operate like other types of norms insofar as there is some lack of congruence between that which is acknowledged to be operating in the society and that which is personally accepted as valid. It is noteworthy on the one hand, that age norms are uniformly acknowledged to exist in the minds of "most people." While the data are not shown here, on each one of the thirty-nine behavioral items some 80 per cent or more of all respondents made age discriminations when asked for "most people's opinions." In other words, general consensus exists that behaviors described in the test instrument are age-related. On the other hand, respondents uniformly attributed greater stricture to age norms in the minds of other people than in their own minds. This difference was reflected in the scores for every respondent as well as in the mean scores.

These findings indicate that there is an overriding norm of "liberal-mindedness" regarding age, whereby men and women consistently maintain that they hold more liberal views than do others. In many ways this situation is reminiscent of the phenomenon of pluralistic ignorance, in which no respondent's personal view of the attitudes of others is altogether correct.[10] In other ways, however, this may be a situation in which respondents tend to exaggerate, rather than to misconstrue, the opinions of others. A young person who says, in effect, "I am not strict about age norms, but other people are," is indeed correct that other people are stricter than he is (as shown in these data on

10. Floyd H. Allport, Social Psychology)Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924)

"personal opinions"); but he exaggerates, for other people are not so strict as he thinks. Similarly, when an old person says, in effect, "I think this is the norm, and other people think so, too," he is also partly correct that other old people agree with him, but he ignores what young people think.

These partial misconceptions have at least two implications: first, when a person's own opinions differ from the norms he encounters, he may exaggerate the differences and place the norms even further away from his own opinions than is warranted. Second, it may be that in considering age norms, the individual gives undue weight to the opinions of persons who are older or stricter than himself and ignores the opinions of others who are younger or less strict. In both instances, the norm image is not the average of all opinions encountered but the image of the "ideal" norm. In the case of age norms, the "ideal" norms may well be those held by older persons.

The findings of this study are also of interest when viewed within the context of adult socialization. Cross-sectional data of this type must be interpreted with caution since the differences between age groups may reflect historical changes in values and attitudes as much as changes that accompany increased age itself. Still, the findings seem congruent with a theory of adult socialization: that personal belief in the relevance and validity of social norms increases through the adult life span and that, in this instance, as the individual ages he becomes increasingly aware of age discriminations in adult behavior and of the system of social sanctions that operate with regard to age appropriateness. The middle-aged and the old seem to have learned that age is a reasonable criterion by which to evaluate behavior, that to be "Off-time" with regard to life events or to show other age-deviant behavior brings with it social and psychological sequelae that cannot be disregarded. In the young, especially the young male, this view is only partially accepted; and there seems to be a certain denial of age as a valid dimension by which to judge behavior.

This age-related difference in point of view is perhaps well illustrated by the response of a twenty-year-old who, when asked what he thought of marriage between seventeen-year-olds, said, "I suppose it would be all right if the boy got a good job, and if they loved each other. Why not? It isn't age that's the important thing." A forty-five-year-old, by contrast, said, "At that age, they'd be foolish. Neither one of them is settled enough. A boy on his own, at seventeen, couldn't support a wife, and he certainly couldn't support children. Kids who marry that young will suffer for it later."

Along with increased personal conviction regarding the validity of age norms goes a decreased tendency to perceive the generalized other as restrictive. The over-all convergence in the data, a convergence which we have interpreted in terms of adult socialization, may reflect status and deference relationships between age groups in American society, where high status is afforded the middle-aged and where social enforcement of norms may generally be said to be vested in

the mature rather than the young. The young person, having only recently graduated from the age-segregated world of adolescents, and incompletely socialized to adult values, seems to perceive a psychological distance between himself and "most people" and to feel only partially identified with the adult world. This is evidenced by the fact that when asked, "Whom do you have in mind when you think of 'most people'?" young adults tended to answer, "Older people."

Only for old people is there a high degree of congruence between personal opinions and the opinions ascribed to others. This may reflect not only the accumulated effects of adult socialization and the internalization of age norms, but also a certain crystallization of attitudes in the aged. Older respondents volunteered the most vehement and the most opinionated comments as they moved from item to item, as if to underscore the fact that their attitudes with regard to age and age-related behaviors are highly charged emotionally.

Under these circumstances, there is likely to be a blurring of distinctions between what the respondent himself regards as right and what he thinks other people would "naturally" regard as right.

With regard to sex differences, the fact that young women perceive greater constraints regarding age-appropriate behavior than do young men is generally congruent with other evidence of differences in socialization for women and men in our society. Young women are probably more highly sensitized to the imperatives of age norms than are young men, given the relatively more stringent expectations regarding age at marriage for women.

It should be recalled that the present study is based upon quota samples of middle-class respondents and that accordingly the findings cannot be readily generalized to other samples. Nevertheless, the findings support the interpretation that age norms are salient over a wide variety of adult behaviors and support the view that adult socialization produces increasingly clear perception of these norms as well as an increasing awareness that the norms provide constraints upon adult behavior.

Adapted from the paper "Age Norms and Age Constraints in Adulthood," presented at the annual meeting of the American Sociological Association, September, 1963. This study has been financed by research grant No. 4200 from the National Institute of Mental Health (Bernice L. Neugarten, principal investigator). The authors are indebted to Mrs. Karol Weinstein for assistance in the collection and treatment of the data.

Text of Major Presentation

By

Lillian E. Troll, Chairperson
Department of Psychology
University College
The Rutgers State University

THE NATURE OF THE ADULT CLIENT: DEVELOPMENTAL NEEDS AND BEHAVIOR

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THE NATURE OF THE ADULT CLIENT:
DEVELOPMENTAL NEEDS AND BEHAVIOR

PART I

CONCEPT OF DEVELOPMENT

You have just been playing with some questions about our definitions of age, and I might tell you about the experience that Nancy Schlossberg and I had when we made up that "Age Norms Inquiry". This was for a workshop at Wayne State in 1967. We were both familiar with Bernice Neugarten's very important work on "age norms," and we decided to take some of her questions and make up a test for the people attending that workshop. They were mostly counselors of adults or people working in state employment or college counseling departments, presumably very tuned in to the condition of adults. As they were working with the questions, we heard a lot of laughter and a lot of movement. When they handed the questionnaires in, they said this had been an enormous self-confrontation. They were surprised to find how much age bias they had themselves.

AGE BIAS

The test has been used, by many people, for its original purpose, to raise consciousness about age stereotypes. Recently, I wrote an article on "age bias", "How old are you? The Question of Age Stereotypes". As I was writing it, I realized that there are three kinds of "age bias", we have. (When I say 'we', I mean everybody in the society, all of us, children, adults, old people.) We apply our bias not only in our interactions with each other, but in the way we judge our own behavior.

The first kind is the attitudes that come out in the answers to the questions you are looking at, "How old should you be to do what?" You can think of this as "age restrictiveness". You feel you should only do certain things at certain ages, and, more, that you should not do certain things at certain ages. This can be across all ages. In fact, in some research we did with counselors across the country, we found that people tend to be more restrictive for the early years of adulthood, even, than they are for the later years. It's felt to be terribly important when you get married, when you have a child, when you start a job; much more important, even, than when you stop work, when you change careers, or should you change careers, or when should you have your last child, etc.

A second kind of "age bias" is "age distortion", which comes out of "age restrictiveness". It is the manouvers we go through to validate our restrictive stereotypes. We see people the way we expect to see them. If we think that an adolescent is unruly and violent, everything that we see an adolescent doing will look to us as unruly and violent. If we think that an adult is dignified and in control, everything that an adult does will look dignified and in control. If we think anybody over the age of fifty is senile, every time they forget their briefcase, we say he, or she, is senile.

The third type of "age bias" is "negative attitudes". There are certain ages that we look down upon, or look upon as bad. Of course, in our society, that is the older ages. We all have our own definitions of when you are old, partly, I'm sure, related to the ages at which our parents, or parent of the same sex, died.

Another factor, in our definition of old age, is how old we ourselves are. This is a sliding scale. I try to have a group of "old people" visit my gerontology class of generally young students, and talk about what it feels like to be their age. Somebody asked one old man what age is "old". He said it was five years older than whatever his own age was at the time. Since the same group of "old people" visited each year, his definition of old moved up consistently. In five years from wherever he was, "old age" would set in, things would be bad, and he would become senile. Since he was 82 at the last visit, he could go on for a while.

CHRONOLOGICAL AGE

That brings us to how we use "chronological age". It is our index for judging everybody, ourselves and other people. That is too bad, because it is a sloppy measure. It is not even very good for children, because there are such enormous individual differences in development among children. Years ago, developmental psychologists got very excited at the possibility of developing a "developmental age" that would give a more accurate measure of knowing where a child was at -- "Was she ready for this?", "Was she ready for that?". Unfortunately, it never proved to be feasible. Partly, people no longer wanted to know about individual differences.

Ward Halstead, a long time ago, at the University of Chicago, approached developmental age through physiological measurements. He got every possible physical measurement that they were able to measure then, to see if there were some kind of diagnostic combination that would tell such things as, for instance, how well people were functioning relative to where they were before, or what predictions one could make about how long they would live. Nothing has ever panned out.

Right now, another group is working on this problem, at the Boston V.A. Hospital. So far, the best measure of developmental age is the skin and hair color. Gray hair is a good rough clue to age but, fortunately, it doesn't tell you much else about the person.

DEVELOPMENTAL AGE

What we really need for job counseling purposes, for career planning purposes, is some estimate of how far one is from death. This is what a good "developmental age" would give us. But there is no way to get it. When we talk about the increase in life expectancy, we just mean that more people can be expected to live out their predestined length of life. The human life itself has not changed appreciably, since Adam and Eve. It seems to be pretty much

genetically programmed. However, if more people have a chance to live out their life span, it gives us a chance to see the enormous variation there is in life span. Some people have a forty-year life span. If you had some way of knowing this and were counseling them at thirty-five, you could help them plan the five years they have left. There are other people who could live closer to 140. This could be a difference in a 100 years. If you are counseling a group of 39 year olds, they have all the way from one year to 99 years left. Given this variation, how can you use "chronological age" to decide such questions as whether it is feasible for them to go back to school, to try a new job, to move to an environment they like better, to give up working, to try a new spouse, to do whatever it is they want to do? If they only have one year, decisions might be different from what they would be if they have 99 years.

A lot of our customs are based on the fact that people used to die long before they were programmed to die. If you knew you had five years left to live, it didn't make much sense to make enormous changes in your life past the age of twenty. Most of our career planning is dedicated to a life span that may be obsolete. We still think in terms of a single career, for instance. This makes sense if you have 15 or 20 years to work at it. That's about the amount of time to develop some careers. But, if you have 60, 80, or 100 years to work, whatever it is you mean by work, you certainly have a very different perspective. Instead of saying to preschoolers, "What are you going to be when you grow up?", we should begin to say, "What are you going to be when you start?", and "five years later?" and "ten years later?". This kind of indoctrination, of course, has to start in infancy if it is going to make any difference.

State Definitions of Adulthood

Can we arrive at a definition of "adulthood"? What is the end of adolescence, what is the beginning of adolescence, or what is the end of adulthood, or the beginning of old age? Some people opt for a physiological definition. The beginning of adulthood, in some cultures, is, of course, when you are able to bear children. This means that now, at the age of nine, many girls, because of a secular trend, are starting to menstruate and, presumably, shortly thereafter, would be able to have children. Should we consider them adults? Is that what we mean, the physiological measure? In that case, what is the end of adulthood? If it's geared to the reproductive cycle, when a woman reaches the menopause, and can no longer bear children, then is she no longer an adult? Actually, many people do think that way. Then what about the definition of adulthood for a man? If he can still have a child at 80, is he better off?

Or, are we going to use a "psychological definition"? Erikson is a developmental psychologist who says, in a way, that the beginning of adolescence is when you begin to know who you really are. This has a social meaning. Your definition of yourself has to agree with the definition other people have of you. When you've reached that point, you can call yourself an adult and can move on into the activities that Freud defines for adulthood (love and work).

Or, should we decide on a "social definition"? This has to be a relative one, depending on what any particular society considers the essence of "adulthood". It is kind of a functional definition; and we are very mixed up with that in our society. If it means that one is economically independent, then there are many people who are not adults until they are well into their middle 30's, or, in a time of depression, never. In our society, where it is getting more and more true that in order to survive, both from the point of view of society and the individual; you have to absorb a great many high-level abstract concepts and skills, then you aren't an adult until you get into the 30's; and you don't stay there very long. For example, we can think of those who have a long period of training, such as doctors, who, without retraining, after ten years are no longer at the height of what they've been trained for. Without retraining, they have an adult span of ten years. However, if you live in a simpler society, where you have learned everything and have all the capacities to carry on and contribute to the rest of society by 9 or 10, you can become an adult at 9 or 10. You can cut trees, or fish, or whatever it is you do to survive and you can remain an adult very much longer.

Thus, we have three possible ways of defining adulthood: "physiological", "psychological", and "social". None of them is very satisfactory. All three look at "adulthood" as a "state", as a "thing", as a "place". If you know Piaget, it's a "concrete operations" level of looking at it, which is too often used in adult thinking about life span development. You describe what a two year old is at, what a six year old is at, what a fifteen year old is at, what an adult is at. Almost always, along with this, is the idea that the adult is at the end of the line. Therefore, it is not surprising that my book, "Early and Middle Adulthood", is practically the first one on development during adulthood. When you look at adulthood as the end of the line, it is a "place". If you get there, you're there. There's nowhere else to go. It's a "jumping off" place.

"Process" Definitions

I prefer, instead of such "state" definitions of adulthood, a "process" definition. I like to think about, "What happens?", "What are the changes?", "What goes on?". Most of what we see about adulthood seems to be a lack of change. There seems to be enormous stability for many, many years from the onset of adolescence to what has been called the "terminal drop".

Let me talk, now, about each of the "processes": "physiological", "cognitive", and "personality".

Physiological "Processes"

Physiologically, there are variations in kinds of "processes" through the life span. Some start deteriorating at birth; the lens of the eye, for instance, reaches its peak just about the time the baby is born, and from then on, it ages. Other characteristics, or traits, seem to continue to increase all the way to the end of life. Weight, for example, seems to go on forever upward

until the very end, to this "terminal drop". However, most things that are really interesting and important to us do reach a peak somewhere in the middle twenties, height, weight, strength, power, our reproductive capacity, many skills, coordination. Then, they have a long, relatively stable plateau with, in some cases, a slight decrease that can be modified by such things as exercise and diet. Then there seems to be a kind of a turning point somewhere in the fifties.

I have said that "chronological age" isn't important. Most changes seem to be related to life span, to genetic programming. Skin and hair and sexual fertility, which come from the same embryonic cells, and don't seem to have anything to do with longevity, are exceptions. They don't tell you about general functioning, but are more indicative of how long you've lived. If you consider health in general, 65 is a more meaningful age. You start accumulating health problems, then, gradually for some people, suddenly for others.

The only physiological events that you can count on are (1) that all women will have menopause, (2) that all of us will die, and (3) that everyone will have a loss in speed. I won't go into the neurological reasons for this loss of speed but it has a pervasive effect on many other functions. If you are a racer, loss of speed might be a disaster. In most cases, however, we can make up for loss of speed with cognitive strategies. If you can't keep up with a lecturer's flow of points, you start taking notes. If you can't think quickly on your feet anymore, you make outlines instead of speaking extemporaneously.

However, most physiological changes aren't inevitable. You cannot say, for instance, that all old people will be senile -- whatever you mean by senile. There are many people who are as sharp at 90, if they die at 95, as those who lose most of their wits at the age of 25. There are many people who have to start wearing glasses at 50, but there are many other people who don't need glasses until the end of a long life. There are many people who lose strength, but other people who remain Samsons forever.

Before proceeding, I have to make an important statement about the research techniques we use. Almost everything we know now is probably only partly true because almost all our information is based on "cross-sectional" research. We know the differences between, say, twenty year olds, now, and forty year olds, sixty year olds, and eighty year olds. However, we are in no position at all to say what the people who are now twenty will be like when they are forty, sixty, and eighty. If we had "longitudinal" research, and if, instead of taking a group of twenty year olds and comparing it with a group of forty year olds, we took a group of twenty year olds and retested them every year, not counting all the problems of the effects of retesting and differential mortality, we would still have problems. We still wouldn't know what a group of twenty year olds born twenty years from now would be like when they were forty, sixty, and eighty, because they would have been brought up under different conditions.

Thus, only when we make a correction for historical changes, can we have any kind of confidence in what we say about age changes. Now, we can only guess. We're estimating age changes from age differences, and we've already made a lot of mistakes. When we look at longitudinal studies of physiological development in adulthood, for instance, we find that there seems to be a lot more stability than change. When we say sixty year olds have more of a certain kind of disease than twenty year olds, we are comparing people who were brought up with different kinds of nutrition, etc. When the present twenty year olds are sixty, they may have a very different health picture than the present sixty year olds.

Cognitive "Processes"

This problem has been even more disastrous in our planning or treatment of people in the intellectual area than it has in the physical area. For many years, we believed that as people got older they got dumber. These conclusions were based on tests like the Jones and Conrad experiment. They tested a whole village from the cradle to almost the grave and found a normal curve. Up to the middle teens, people were smarter and smarter; then they got dumber and dumber. However, after that was corrected for amount of education, it was discovered that what they really had, was a curve of education. The two year olds had no school and were not very smart. The seventy year olds had, maybe, two years of school and, so, were not as smart (on the tests) as the next generation who had had high school education. As for the third generation, today's young generation, a quarter of them have had some college education. And that makes a difference in development or aging.

Let me talk, now, about sex, because it enters into most stereotypes and ideas about age. Of course, it is important to first separate fertility from enjoyment or capacity. Fertility, in women, seems to be at its peak somewhere in the twenties, perhaps later, now, because, as we're having an earlier age of puberty, we're also having a later age of menopause. (It's a combined secular trend which, in a way, is curious, because, at a time when we don't need it, we have more fertility than ever before, and a longer fertile range.) Somewhere in the middle thirties, fertility seems to decline, and then by the early fifties, ends relatively abruptly. It is one of the most abrupt changes in the process of physiological aging.

Women's capacity for enjoyment in sex seems to be very different. It looks like they don't get going until their middle or late twenties and then they keep going up and up, until, apparently, the end of life. Meanwhile, men have reached their peak at seventeen and gone downward steadily thereafter -- to the eighties.

There has been a lot of research on intelligence. If you give IQ tests, (which combine a lot of things to get a general quotient based on age) you see remarkable stability from a peak somewhere at the end of the twenties, continuing through at least the seventies, to a "terminal drop". If you compare (people whom you keep retesting) those who haven't died with those who have, you see a drop in IQ from their own earlier levels the last six months or so, of their life.

Some separate intelligence into two parts.

The first might be called an "organizing", "transforming", or "problem solving" part of intelligence. Information is taken in and reworked. Some people call this "fluid intelligence". There is evidence that this kind of intelligence may continue to go down from early or middle adulthood, though other experimenters, who have followed the same people along longitudinally, find less clear-cut evidence for this.

The second kind of intelligence, the "storage capacities" would include memory, vocabulary, information. This seems to increase throughout life, at least until this "terminal drop". If you want to have accumulated wisdom, if you're in a society that doesn't have computers and books, and you want to know what happened in earlier times, it would be good to have old people around. Their memory provides history. They're likely to remember that when that yellow cloud came seventy years ago, it meant that you'd better run for the hills, because a tidal wave is going to sweep across the land. Even though it is hard to see, from a straight evolutionary point of view, what old age is good for, in survival of the species, it may have had a lot of survival value after all.

One of the myths about intellectual change is that you lose your memory, or your memory gets worse and worse. It is true that groups of old people generally have more trouble memorizing a list of numbers or nonsense syllables than do groups of young people. However, the differences are much smaller or non-existant if they have to learn meaningful material. Furthermore, if you control for speed and attention, and make sure the people have really learned the material, then any memory problem boils down to a matter of "recalling". The trouble is with "retrieval" or "interference", not memory storage. The information is there and we'll think of it eventually.

Personality "Processes"

"Adulthood" is the most stable period of life. If you're interested in life span development, which is looking at some of the reasons for change, it is as interesting to study the slow moving period, as it is to study the fast moving periods. The fast moving periods of life are, of course, infancy, adolescence, and the "terminal period" of old age.

There are other periods where, on the whole, things move very slowly. One of them, Freud called the "latency period", between six and about twelve. The other one is the adult years. In many things, in the kinds of things we're interested in, general intelligence, attitude toward life, the kind of people we like, in the way we look at ourselves, in our tastes, in our political opinions, we seem to stay remarkably the same from early adulthood to very old age.

Let us consider how inevitable that is. Can we change if we want to? Is it impossible to change? Is the reason for the stability that the organism becomes rigid, as some people have said? I have convinced myself that there is a different reason. What we have learned in the process of early development is how to keep things the same, because change is not usually pleasant. In fact,

the words that always come to my mind are, "If you want to develop, if you want to become a more creative, more self-actualized person, you have to go "through the valley of death". It's like giving birth to a new thing in yourself.. That is very unpleasant, and often very dangerous; so, we learn to keep things the same, and, all other things being equal, we maintain the status quo as much as we can.

But what happens when change happens to you, either from the outside or the inside? It seems to me that four different kinds of things can happen:

(1) You can pretend it hasn't happened. This is what many people do. Many women pretend their child is still two years old, even though he is thirty-two. Many men, also, pretend change isn't going on around them, when it is. In psychiatric terms, they "deny" change. This can cause some problems. If change is hitting you over the head all the time, you really have to avoid reality to pretend it isn't there.

(2) Another possibility, which many counselors, unfortunately, consider desirable, is a return to "homeostasus". You just change yourself enough so that you're back to where you were before. You restore the equilibrium. You adjust. The word "adjust" isn't one of my favorite words, because it is a stagnant word, and you can see, now, that I value change.

(3) The third possibility, the danger present in all of this, is that you just fall apart, if you're inundated with the change and you're trying to change yourself more than you can. That is part of the explanation of why "mental breakdown" happens so frequently to late adolescents. That is a period of enormous change, in yourself, in the expectations society has for you, in your physical capacity, etc. You can be inundated beyond what you can cope with. (Incidentally, I have great anxiety about psychotherapeutic techniques that believe you have to destroy the old person before you create the new one. When you destroy, you destroy, and you have nothing to build with.)

(4) The fourth possibility is, of course, the one I consider the good one. It is what I call "development". I think of it in terms of a kind of dialectic process. You have a condition as it is. You're confronted with a condition that is opposite to it, or in conflict with it. If you put the two of them together, and make something that combines both, you can transform yourself into somebody new. You have truly "developed". Unfortunately, there have been very few people throughout history who have had the opportunity to do this. Great artists, great creative people, are examples of this. We see that they have been able to change, to recreate, to transform themselves, continually, almost to the end of their lives.

THE NATURE OF THE ADULT CLIENT:
DEVELOPMENTAL NEEDS AND BEHAVIOR

PART II

DEVELOPMENT OF THE FAMILY AND THE JOB

I tried to define the concept of "development" this morning. Now we're going to discuss it in terms of the family and the job. I use the word "job", advisedly, instead of "work", because many people who are not on a job, work, and many people on the job, don't work.

FAMILY DEVELOPMENT

I'm going to take what we're dealing with, the "adult" years, in three units: The first is the marital unit: the second is the parent-child unit; and the third is the "extended kin" unit, which has certain functions of its own as well as serving as a reservoir for missing members in either of the other two units.

The Marital Unit

Let us consider the marital unit first, What can we mean by the word "development" in a husband-wife relationship? Almost fifteen years ago, an article came out in the Journal of Marriage and the Family, about disenchantment in the second half of life, by Pineo. It was an analysis of some longitudinal data over twenty years of marriage showing progressive disenchantment from the time of the honeymoon. There is less intimacy, less doing things together, less talking to each other. Other studies show very much the same kind of pattern. People who are newly-married have a lot of heat in their interactions. They spend a lot of time talking to each other, fighting with each other, making up, there's a lot of sex, and going out together. They talk about such subjects as their children, their parents. Twenty years later, things have cooled down. They are likely not to talk as much to each other. They talk about such things as whether it's time to put up the storm windows. They don't fight with each other, but, then they don't love each other as much or have as much sex with each other. They talk some about their children, if their children are still in the house, but rarely about their parents, anymore.

This pattern is not true where there are no children. Where there are no children, marital satisfaction seems to be more constant. Children don't make a marriage, in that sense. But, of course, we must remember that if people don't have children, and don't like each other, they are not as likely to stay together. Thus, you have a strong survival effect in those people who have been married twenty or thirty years, without children. They are the ones for whom marriage is really doing something.

There are some studies, not the same ones as discussed above, but others that have been pieced together, that show that once the children leave home there is an upswing in satisfaction, a "second honeymoon". There is a great feeling of freedom. The empty nest is not a terrible tragedy. In almost every study that

has been done, over the last five or ten years, of married women, they can hardly wait for their children to leave home. As for the menopause, most women (ten or fifteen years before they face it) think they are going to go crazy or something. But those who are in it say that although they may have some physical discomfort, it is not the overwhelming, life-ending event they thought it was going to be. They don't seem to be going crazy. In fact, many say things have never been so good. Those people who are past menopause say they are now at the best period of their life, though this may change by the late sixties or seventies when health and money problems become heavy.

What are we talking about in terms of development of a marriage or family? How do we compare this kind of development with the idea of development of an individual? If we put together the idea that women may develop and that men may develop, what happens to the marriage? Can we talk about something more complicated, the development of a relationship?

It is curious to put together the idea of the independent possibilities of the development of each spouse, and then see what the possibilities are for the marital relationship surviving. Pineo attributed his finding of disenchantment to the fact that people try to achieve the best fit when they marry. They marry the best person they can find, at least at that time. This is because marriage, in our society, is a "dyadic" affair involving only two people. At least the choice is supposed to involve only the couple. In some societies, you marry somebody who will fit in with your extended family system, who will provide children. In such a situation, you would expect to find a very different process over time. The arrival of children would improve the marriage. In our society, where we marry to please ourselves, we have the best possible fit at the time we get married, so, according to Pineo, we have nowhere to go but down.

Let us pretend there are three possibilities for the growth of the husband and three possibilities for the wife:

(1) They can stay very stable, just <u>stay the same</u>. The husband can stay the same. The wife can stay the same.

(2) They can <u>develop in</u> the <u>positive way</u> we've considered above. They can get more creative, more complex, more self-actualizing, more transformed, whatever we want to call it.

(3) They can <u>deteriorate</u>, which is another kind of development. They can get more and more simple, concretistic, etc.

We have, thus, a three-vector table with nine cells, as presented below.

POSSIBILITIES FOR HUSBAND-WIFE MATCHING OVER YEARS OF MARRIAGE AS A FUNCTION OF PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT IN EITHER OR BOTH*

Development of Husband	Development of wife: None (Stable)	Development of wife: Becomes more complex	Development of wife: Becomes less complex
None (stable)	Match should remain good. Perhaps dormant while children intervene, but, when they leave, may get "second honeymoon".	Match deteriorates. Wife's needs no longer met.	Match deteriorates. Husband's needs no longer met.
Becomes more complex	Match deteriorates. Husband's needs no longer met.	Relationship has chance to develop if individuals' changes are on same path...(otherwise not)	Match deteriorates. Husband's needs no longer met.
Becomes less complex	Match deteriorates. Wife's needs no longer met.	Match deteriorates. Wife's needs no longer met.	Relationship has chance of staying matched if negative developments of both are sychronous; could be like "cooling off:. But, if not, synchronization will disappear.

*Troll, Lillian E., "Early and Middle Adulthood," Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, 1975. p. 92.

If both husband and wife stay the same, then you would expect the marriage to be just as satisfactory as it was when they first got married, other things not changing. This tends to be relatively true when there are no children. You see, children, in our system, can only be an interference in the dyadic relationship, because it is a dyadic system that is set up at the time of marriage. You marry for a one-to-one relationship. When a third person enters, you are going to have

trouble. Practically all the literature seems to show that the birth of the first child is an enormously upsetting event to both the husband and wife, and the marriage. Later children don't seem to matter so much. As soon as you've broken the dyadic pattern, you've done it, and having more children won't matter.

If the wife doesn't change, and the husband doesn't change, and nothing else changes, and there are no children, then you can have a continued best match, unless this was only the best match at the time, someone you met in college, perhaps, and five years later you meet somebody better.

Now suppose the husband develops, gets more self-actualized, whatever you want to call it, but his wife stays the same. That's not very good, because he's going to get bored. Or, suppose he deteriorates. All he does is sit in front of the TV set and drink beer, and never pay much attention to her; and, meanwhile, she has stayed the same. That match is no good, either. She gets bored with him.

Then, consider that the wife develops. She gets more actualized, gets into the women's movement, has her consciousness raised, starts going to town. If her husband stays the same, that's no good. However, if he develops, too, if they both develop, they aren't necessarily still matched, because they may be developing in different directions. The big question is, "What is the probability of both of them developing, so that their relationship develops?" That's where any marriage counselor who doesn't already have gray hair, will, perhaps, be justified in getting some.

Then suppose the wife develops and the husband deteriorates. You can figure that one out.

Now take the bottom line, where the wife deteriorates. She does nothing but wash diapers and look at TV ads on how she can get them whiter. She never goes out of the house. Suppose her husband stays the same. That's not good. Suppose he develops, that's worse. Suppose he, also, deteriorates. She's down there in the laundry room; he's there in front of the TV, or whatever. Is that going to be good? It's like when they are both developing upward. It depends on whether they both develop downward the same way. Here, some interesting things come in like expectations, traditional marriage expectations. If the girl got married knowing that marriage means spending the rest of her life washing diapers, and not counting on her husband doing much more than he could get away with, she might not be the happiest person in the world, but, at least, she is not going to be very dissatisfied. This is what her mother did, and what she expected.

But, if the wife develops downward in one direction, like the wife in the movie, "A Woman Under the Influence", gets phychotic, and the husband develops downward in another direction, gets hung up on spaghetti, then what is the chance of their relationship staying the same, or developing? This is the big question. I just leave it here for you, now. However, it raises some interesting ideas, just like the interesting ideas raised about the possibilities of an individual developing, or the possibilities of a relationship developing.

Parent-child Relationship

Let us consider, now, the "parent-child" relationship. Here, we're talking about adults. We're almost, now, breaking some of the stereotypic ideas or myths we have about adulthood. One of the basic ideas we've had, is that when children are adolescent, they should leave the family, leave their parents. Parents are bad if they don't let go. And, children are to be ashamed if they don't leave their parents, and still want to talk to them, and see them. None of the research shows these myths to be true, particularly in this country. Instead, we have continued contact between parents and children throughout life. This is not something that gets destroyed by any of the forces that destroy every other relationship, geographic mobility, occupational mobility, upward or downward, economic circumstances, illness, whatever. The parent-child relationship remains a strong one. It may be full of anger and full of hatred. I'm not saying that we feel benevolently, either towards our parents, or towards our children, but they are important in our lives. We may not recognize this fact because it is against our stereotypes, just as we distort, in terms of "age bias", some of the characteristics of the person we are looking at. We say they are old. We only see "old" things.

Several years ago, I was asked to be a speaker at a church workshop on the family. These were people from different churches who were being trained to go back to their own churches and organize family programs. Each of them, at the beginning, started out kind of defining themselves as a family person. They said how many children they had, how long they were married. I was the last one, I said I was curious that none of them included their parents, since parents were also family. It was almost as if I had popped a bottle. They all started to talk at once. From then on, they spent an hour and a half admitting that, indeed, they were enormously involved with their parents, but that they didn't talk about it because it was not recognized as the thing they were supposed to do.

Extended Kin

The stereotype of old people is that they are neglected because of the vanishing of the extended family. However, studies of old people around the world have found that over 80 percent had living children and of those who did, over 90 percent lived within easy commuting distance of at least one child. If they were poor, they lived in the same block, or the same apartment building--though not in the same residence. If they had more money, one might live in the suburbs, and the other in the city, but they could afford to visit back and forth. In the U.S., one might live in Arizona, and one in Detroit. All you have to do is go to the airport, anytime, and see the constant family reunions. I've seen at least twelve people at a time, all come to welcome grandma or grandpa. It seems that people live as far apart as they can keep in touch. This was found to be true in a study of three generations of couples in Minneapolis, grandparents, one of their children and spouse, and one of their children and spouse. At all ages, from newlyweds to old people, not only did they live near each other, but they had constant visiting and helping.

This was also found in a cross-national study of old people in Denmark, England, and the U.S. Each of those old people had seen at least one child at least three times in the last week. Furthermore, there was constant interchange of help, not only with the middle-aged giving to the old, but also with the old giving to the young. If the old have money, they give money. If they are very rich, they maintain their family status by supporting the next generation in the proper style. They give them an estate, a yacht, a cadillac. If they are poor, they do babysitting, build a cabinet, etc.

To get back to our key question in the development of a parent-child relationship throughout the adult years. Margaret Blenkner talked about "Filial Maturity" which occurs in middle age, the first time you can see your parents as real people, accept them as real people, instead of seeing them in an egocentric way, only from your own perspective.

Our basic framework of our own life expectations comes from our parents. For example, we expect to live just about as long as our parent of the same sex. It is really fascinating to talk to people in terms of how long they really expect to be around, and, then ask them, "How old was your father (or mother) when he died?" People who outlive their parents seem lost. They have no model. There's nobody who's been there to show them how to be.

This morning, we talked about some of the consequences of having lots of old people around, for the first time in history, to present a variety of models of how it is to continue to develop, or not develop, into the later years of life. (I say the older generations, today, because if you talk about people over 65, in many cases, you're talking about two family generations, mother and daughter, father and son.) The old people of today are the pioneers. They had no models for how to manage retirement or what to do when your children grow up. The next generations are going to be able to profit from their learning, because they will be models for them -- unless we have social changes which reverse the whole thing, like terrible nutrition, pollution, etc., so that future people will live less long than their parents.

A major research area is "generational transmission". I have studied over one hundred, three-generation lineages, primarily of women, several hundred grandmothers, daughters, granddaughters, all adults. The granddaughters are at least in their teens, so that I can ask them the same questions.

There are some interesting shifts that go along with the consequences of education. In my "grandmother generation", only three have had any college education. One went to teachers college, one to music school, and one to nursing school. Of their daughters, one-fourth had some college; and one-half of the granddaughters had some college. With that, we get what seem to be, some very interesting related trends.

I looked at such things as "cognitive complexity", which is the way you look at the world. How complex do you see the world to be, how differentiated? Do you see the world as a sort of confused glob, or do you see it as an integrated thing, with many different aspects organized into higher-order categories?

Then I looked at a well-known concept in psychology, "internal locus of control". How much do you think it's in your power to shape your own destiny? (Sex differences have been striking, from the very first time that tests have been made.) In general, men, and, particularly young men, see themselves as being able to shape their own destiny, but women do not. They feel there is some power out there, maybe a husband, maybe God, or fate, or society, that is shaping them; and they are helpless.

The other thing I looked for was "achievement motivation", which is familiar to many of you who have had any educational psychology. What we were looking at were different kinds of achievement, particularly, in studying achievement in women, not what they actually do, but their achievement orientation, how they want to get what they want. I thought of four different ways of achieving:

(1) Achievement as task mastery. You want to do something very well, sort of a skill. Whatever you do, you want to do well.

(2) Achievement as recognition. You want to be recognized by others as having achieved.

(3) Achievement through interpersonal influence. You achieve through your inputs on others. This is, of course, familiar to most women, in producing influential husbands, bosses, sons, whatever. They get their power through others.

(4) Achievement through creativity. You produce something new. You transform the old into something new. You can do that directly, through your own efforts, or through directing other's efforts, either within the traditional woman's realm of family, or outside.

We scored these three generations of women in the three factors I've explained here: "cognitive complexity," "internal locus of control", and "achievement motivation". And we found a steady shift, with that educational shift, in all these factors.

The oldest generation was the least "cognitively complex", and the most external in "locus of control". They felt it really wasn't up to them. Someone out there was doing it. They had the lowest level of achievement motivation, and their achievement orientation was primarily through interpersonal influence. They would achieve through the efforts of others.

The next generation had more "cognitive complexity," particularly seeing the other person's perspective. They were the least egocentric, the most objective. They had more feeling that the world was something they could do something about. They had a higher level of achievement motivation. They were particularly oriented toward achieving through task mastery. Whatever they did, they wanted to do well. They were more practical.

The youngest generation was the most "cognitively complex". They saw many different things in the world around them. The world was a very much more interesting place for them than it was for their grandmothers, who saw simple bits of life. They really felt that whatever they wanted to do was within their power. They had a much higher level of "achievement orientation" altogether, and their primary mode of achieving was through creativity.

So, you do get this kind of development through the effect of having older generations on whom to build.

I've already stated that we can no longer talk about the isolated nuclear family, about the isolated older people, but, about the larger kinship network. Older people don't live in the same household with their children. They prefer to live alone, but near their children, to keep in touch with them. I'll leave the family now.

JOB DEVELOPMENT

What does it mean to "develop on the job"? When I set out to write the chapter in my book on job development, I thought that was an important area in adult development, I read through everything I could get hold of, in vocational literature, and found nothing that satisfied me. I found a lot of material on job mobility, changes with age; young people are most mobile. I found material on job satisfaction changes with changes in age; older people are more satisfied. I found material on "orderly careers" vs "disorderly careers", as Wilensky calls it. I found a lot of different things that were very interesting about vocational placement, vocational guidance, matching persons to jobs. I realized you could treat "development on the job" very much like you could treat "individual development," and "family development".

For the concept of what it would mean to truly "develop on the job," I went back to the model of what it truly means to develop in the family, a development of sort of a relationship. Development in the job is not moving up the ladder, which is more just like being able to add two place numbers, and then four place numbers, and then six place numbers; but a regular progression; and you are more likely to be involved with your family and your community, if you have a regular job history. You can have an orderly job history in a bureaucratic system where there are steps that you can measure yourself by, where there are procedures in moving up. Men, middle class men, are more likely to have orderly careers. Working class men are not. They may not have that same kind of career. There are some working class men, like carpenters or tradesmen, who go straight along, like the husband and wife; they get set in time. For the rest of their life, they just do the same thing forever after. I don't only mean a man like a carpenter, but also a surgeon, or other person who learns a skill and stays with it.

Certainly, women never had, until recently, an orderly career because they move in and out of the job world, as they have children. In the Minneapolis study I mentioned earlier, there have been some variations by generation. Until recently, women were expected to stop work as soon as they were married, to stay in the house. It was shameful, for both the husband and wife, for a wife to work.

What we have seen in the past ten years is a big change in two blocks of women working: (1) women with young children, and (2) middle-aged women. Middle-aged women have outgrown their first job, the care of children and husbands and gone back to doing factory work, office work, whatever jobs do not require heavy strength and can be done as well by women as by men. Middle-aged women, being practical and very experienced in running a complex household, are often found to be good employees.

To get back to the question, then, what kind of model do we have for job development? If you are a vocational counselor with adults, and somebody comes to you and says, "I am bored; where am I going to go from here?", what kind of things have you got to work with? Is variety the answer? Is it just going on to something different than she did before? Again I turn to the model of the artistic person, the writer, the thinker, the sculptor. This kind of job development is improving on, or making, or transforming, what he was doing before into a higher-order kind of activity. It can be done in an interactional way with the job under very optimal conditions today. You can have the job go along with you. There are some people who experience this kind of exciting job development, where the job itself changes along with the person, but that is very rare.

For a layman, or a counselor, it is always so useful to have an idea where the goal is. If you have that idea, to help define the disturbance of the person in front of you, then you may find the means, on different tracks, for different people to reach that goal.

SEMINAR I - ADULT DEVELOPMENT
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SEMINAR II MATERIALS

Career Development Needs of Adults

Dr. Allen Entine
Assistant Academic Vice President
State University of New York
Stonybrook
Chairman, Mid-career Counseling
Program and Studies

CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN ADULTS

by

Nancy K. Schlossberg
April, 1974

Nancy K. Schlossberg is Professor of Education at the
University of Maryland in College Park and
a Consultant for the State Education
Department of Maryland

Without question, in this world work is of crucial salience in the lives of most adults. Its importance is highlighted in the case of those who suddenly find themselves unemployed. Mandatory retirement, for instance, may have deleterious effects on vigorous men and women. The discouragement, anger and self-hatred that often accompany unemployment contrast sharply with the satisfaction and self-respect that come from meaningful employment.

But simply being employed does not assure fulfillment. Frequently, people find themselves growing discontent with their jobs. "Blue-collar blues" and assembly-line boredom are matters of concern to employers and sociologists alike. Women's centers have sprung up on over 400 college and university campuses, in response to the needs and demands of women who feel trapped as housewives or as clerical workers. Moreover, dissatisfaction and a desire for change are not limited to those working at low-level and repetitious tasks. Orville Brim, former president of the Russell Sage Foundation, notes that many apparently successful men have launched themselves on second careers; he attributes this behavior to the panic which follows a recognition that there may no longer be any chances (Brim & Wheeler, 1966). Lee Stockford in a study of 4,000 men and women selected randomly from large corporations, identified what he calls

> ...over-30 despair. The stages of the Who-Am-I crisis are surprisingly standard. /A person/ thrashes around ...stews in his own juice...He realizes, with agony, that his dreams of 20 will never be realized (Boyer, p.68).

This crisis is presented directly and poignantly in a letter from John Koffend to his wife:

> I keep forgetting that I'm 53--not forgetting, really--ignoring. Just seven years from 60, which is old, old.../I am past/ the deadline I'd set before I got out of the Army; by 45, I promised myself, I would have accomplished all that I wanted to do--but what I wanted to do I didn't know then, no more than now.
>
> Too many of us define and live life by negatives. Happiness is the absence of pain; success, whatever success is, doesn't matter as long as nothing gets too far out of kilter. The best approach to old

> age and death is not to think about it. It's enough to have friends, though their parties are dull and homogenous; it's enough to have a job with a little status to it, though it is not fulfilling anymore; it's enough to be married even though the love and meaning have gone; it's enough to be in reasonably good health,...to keep two cars and one dog and the insurance premiums paid, to send the children to college and reach retirement age and retire and look back down the procession of undistinguished and indistinguishable years and say, "Well, it wasn't great, but it wasn't too bad, it could have been worse." (Koffend, 1972, pp. 29-30).

The sense that one is wasting one's talents is another factor that may lead to a search for a second chance. For many, this means returning to school; Hiestand remarks on the "substantial invasion of middle-aged students into professional and graduate schools for full-time study" (Hiestand, 1971, p.2). The following statement, by a bus driver studying to be a sociologist, reveals the feelings and motives that underlie such a change, as well as some of the difficulties involved:

> Well, I'm a bus driver, and I've been driving buses 13 years. About three years ago, I decided to become a sociologist,...so now I'm taking undergraduate courses. The bus company cooperates with me in no way but to give me a bus. I drive the bus, and I don't want to cause any ripples...This is not the level I'm capable of performing. I threw away quite a bit of time because I had a chance to go to college on the G.I. bill, but at that time I never considered college. All I wanted to do was to get into something where my present abilities would suffice... Another bus driver has a situation similar to mine. He wanted to go to school. What really upset him most was looking at me. We are the same age....He kept saying, "It's too late now, I'm 37. I am 37 too, but I don't feel too old (Wayne State Conference, 1965).

Another example comes from an insurance salesman turned school administrator:

> I had some friends that were in the insurance business. They urged me to get in because of my sales ability. At that time, I was more interested in money than anything else. I was also active with alumni work, and when I was elected president of our Flint alumni group, I had some real misgivings. Since I had never graduated--I mean, this really bothered me...I didn't want anyone to find out I hadn't graduated, so I decided to go back...I got kidded good about college---when they said, "We've got a schoolboy with us." At age 42, I sold my business, then finished school, became a teacher, and am now a principal of an elementary school...It was a great thing to me when the newspaper had a big article and picture about my being made principal (Wayne State Conference, 1965).

Such cases as these reflect not only the frustration that may lead to career change but also more positive feelings: determination, the acceptance of challenge, the triumph that comes from making the change successfully. Perhaps too much emphasis has been placed on the negative factors that influence adult career change. Heistand, after studying adults who changed careers after age 35, concludes that middle age is a period of increased options and continued development. They change direction not because they are forced to, not because they have failed at their jobs, not because of fear or desperation--but because of widening interests and heightened self-awareness. In an earlier study of men 35 years of age or older who were enrolled as undergraduates, I distinguished two classes of reasons for returning to school--"motivators" and "deterrents." This distinction is based on Kuhlen's explanation of a "simultaneous push to expand and need to defend against possible loss" (Schlossberg, 1970, p. 38). For example, a businessman who has ten years until retirement may be motivated to change his career to teaching by two kinds of factors: one, apprehension about imposed leisure; the other, a genuine excitement about teaching. My study confirmed that many adult males who were changing careers were doing so because of emerging interests and needs, not simply out of desperation.

Some of the problems connected with adult career change arise in large part from our failure to provide adequate counseling to people in the throes of change. At present, such services are sadly lacking, as many people have recognized. Eli Ginzberg, for instance, argues for expanded services for adults because of

> the inevitable tendency for young people to delay their occupational decisions as a concomitant of the elongation of their education and training; the tendency of young adults to reopen their tentative decisions as a result of early experiences in the military or in the civilian labor market; the increasing number of women who wish to enter or return to the world of work; and the large number of middle-aged adults who seek to make job and career shifts (Ginzberg, 1971, p. 279).

Our failure to provide such services can be attributed largely to our lack of a theoretical base for dealing with career development in adults. It is my purpose to survey some of the theoretical work that has already been done, to examine more closely some of the kinds of career change that occur among adults, and to explore the usefulness of a particular theoretical framework--the congruence model--for understanding adult change.

VOCATIONAL MATURITY--A POSSIBILITY AT ANY AGE

In the past, it was taken for granted that one chose a career early in life -- usually at the point of graduation from high school -- and was then "locked into" that choice for good. In Osipow's words: "What is not, but often seems assumed, is that young people are going to make a one-time vocational decision and that if we can get that one made, well, we won't have to worry about their

later careers" (Osipow, 1972). As a result of such an assumption, most vocational theorists have focused on school-age children and adolescents; the career development of adults has been ignored.

At the present time, however, the notion of lifelong vocational development is beginning to make inroads on the concept of stabilization. We have come to recognize that middle age is not necessarily limited to maintaining one's achieved position, nor is it the "beginning of death in life; for many people, it may be the time for an emerging concept of a lifetime of personal change, of an adulthood of continual self-transformation" (Keniston, 1969, pp. 128-29). Yet we still do not have a firm theoretical base for looking at career development in adults. Similarly, there is a paucity of empirical data on which to base such a theory.

One exception is the work of David Sheppard, who developed an Adult Vocational Maturity Inventory (AVMI) based on Crites' concept of vocational maturity. This concept crept into the professional literature in the early forties and gained prominence with Super's explication of the term. As summarized by Norton (170, pp. 165-66), Super includes the following five components in his definition of vocational maturity:

1. Orientation to vocational choice: Degree of concern with choice and use of vocational materials and resources

2. Information and planning about preferred occupation: Specificity of information and of planning and extent of planning activity

3. Consistency of vocational preference (within fields, levels, and families of occupations)

4. Crystallization of traits: Patterning of measured interests and of work values, liking for work, acceptance of responsibility for choice and planning, and vocational independence

5. Wisdom of vocational preference: Agreement between ability and preference, between measured interests and performance, between occupational level of measured interests and measured preference.

In the view of Crites, vocational maturity comprises two elements: choice competencies (including problem solving, planning, occupational information, self-knowledge, and goal selection) and choice attitudes (including involvement, orientation, independence, preference and conception) (Norton, 1970, pp. 167-68). Crites sought to measure choice attitudes by means of the Vocational Development Inventory, a scale designed for use with preadolescent and adolescent subjects.

Sheppard's Adult Vocational Maturity Inventory, which asks about past vocational decisions, measures the following dimensions: (1) involvement in the vocational process, (2) orientation toward work, (3) independence in decision making, (4) preference for vocational choice factors, and (5) conceptions of the choice process. After administering the AVMI to 200 adult males, Sheppard concluded that "an individual can mature vocationally throughout his lifetime. Thus, in any large heterogeneous sample of adults, there are individuals who represent all levels of the maturity continuum" (Sheppard, 1971, p. 405).

Vocational maturity is a relevant construct for understanding adult career development in that it encompasses several processes relating to vocational life rather than just the work activity itself. The mature person--be she/he ten, twenty, or fifty--is the person who is involved in the choice process, able to make appropriate decisions by first considering expanded alternatives and then narrowing down the options and able to utilize existing resources. The point is that the vocationally mature person is open to continuious change--in self and in situation--and is in control of his/her vocational destiny. That such control is rare was dramatically revealed in Anne Roe and Rhoda Baruch's study (1964) of adults who changed careers. Their most striking finding was that these adults did not feel in control of their careers; in fact, they attributed their work changes to chance rather than to planfulness.

The construct of vocation maturity helps evaluate where an individual is on Jillian Rotter's "locus of control" (Rotter, 1966). The more an individual feels self-controlled rather than situation-controlled, the more vocationally mature he/she is. This, then, can be the goal of adult guidance: to intervene in ways that stimulate involvement, orientation, and independence in career decision making. This would result in people feeling in control of their destinies rather than controlled by external events.

Vocational maturity may take place at the "normal" point of young adulthood; it may be delayed until later in life; or, conceivably, it may not happen at all for some individuals. Vocational development is not necessarily continuous and sequential; it is cyclical. Therefore, vocational maturity may have several stages. For instance, a person may make a rational and mature vocational decision early in life, but then--due to changes in circumstances or in self--the original decision may become inappropriate. As Hiestand puts it: "As a result of continued development and exposure to an ever-widening and ever more interesting world, an evolution and crystallization of new ambitions occurs for some" (Hiestand, 1972, p. 8).

CAREER CHANGE--A CONSTANT IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Studies of adult career change are few and usually limited in scope and sample size. For instance, there have been studies of teachers in the process of becoming counselors (Bingham, 1966), of ministers leaving the ministry (Mills, 1966), of men and women in the Boston area who changed careers (Roe & Baruch, 1964),

and of adult men enrolled as undergraduates (Schlossberg, 1970). The paucity of empirical research on the subject might suggest that career change is the province of the very few, that only exceptional people of extraordinary strength and determination can take the bull by the horns and get out of a job they dislike to one that they find satisfying.

Yet it is literally true that career change is a constant in adulthood. Every human being constantly makes changes, even when remaining in the same job. Of course, the degree of change is often slight. Using Holland's occupational classification scheme which differentiates occupations by area of interest and by level of educational development, we find, for instance, that a move from bus driver to sociologist represents a sizable change in both basic interest area and educational level, whereas a move from parking lot attendant to dry cleaner represents a miniscule change to a slightly different interest area and a somewhat higher educational level. The point is that both of these moves do represent change, and the person who makes them is also changing activities, work cohorts, and self-definition.

Super's three-dimensional classification system (Chart 1) provides another framework for examining change. In this system, occupations are classified according to field (of interest or activity), level (a reflection, in part, of the degree of training or education required), and enterprise (setting in which work takes place; e.g., a counselor may work in a high school, hospital, or private employment agency) (Super, 1957). Change is defined as any movement from one box to another. A person may move up or down a level and still remain within the same field and enterprise; one may move from one interest area to another and still remain at the same level and within the same enterprise; or one may move from one enterprise to another and still stay within the same field and at the same level. All these changes involve the individual in new situations requiring new self-assessments.

Whether one uses Holland's or Super's classification system, the notion of degrees of change can be more realistically applied to adults than the notion of abrupt and radical change. Although radical change is more dramatic--and thus more likely to receive attention from the news media--small changes are far more common, and just as dramatic from the point of view of the adults who experience them.

Indeed, even if one stays at exactly the same position in exactly the same job during one's lifetime, there is still a sense in which one undergoes change. Soffer, studying a particular organization, has pointed out that careers are age-graded and that a person who does not move upward while peers are doing so experiences "career disappointment,"

> ...a disturbance in self-conception, of felt identity. An important aspect of identity maintenance consists of ability to look back and ahead in one's life cycle and see some consistency between what one hoped to become, now is, and can reasonably still become. The significance of continuity becomes obvious when a disturbance occurs (Soffer, 1970, pp. 68-69).

The pain of such a disturbance is twofold: It "is painful to discover that one is not going to have the role which one has rehearsed," and it is painful to lose face with one's colleagues (Soffer, 1970). Even if the individual's job does not change, his/her self-concept does.

THE CONGRUENCE MODEL -- A FRAMEWORK FOR UNDERSTANDING ADULT CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Theories about the determinants of occupational choice, vocational maturity, and career satisfaction are many and varied, ranging all the way from the psychoanalytic to the sociological and placing different emphases on such factors as family background, peers, interveners, and options. One example of a highly eclectic theory is Mills' model, which involves a six-dimension analysis to explain career choice: historical factors, sociocultural factors, situational factors, personality factors, phenomenological factors, and the object of decision (Mills, 1966, p. 134). Unfortunately, this model is too comprehensive to provide a ready handle for understanding the vocational development of adults. What is needed is a model that is at once fairly simple to apply and at the same time detailed enough to be meaningful.

Through continued and extensive reading, interviewing, discussing, and thinking about adult career development, I have been struck by the dominance of one theme that seems to cut across all theories, from Super to Mills. That is the theme of congruence. In their brilliant book, Marriage and Work in America, Veroff and Feld write:

> The major principle that has guided our work is: to the extent there is congruence between the strength of a motive and the possibilities for the motive to be gratified in the role, there will be satisfaction and ease in role performance, and to the extent there is poor meshing, there will be problems in the way individuals react to the role (Veroff & Feld, 1970, p. 13).

The notion of congruence is not original with Veroff and Feld. Pace and Stern, in their initial studies of the impact of college on students, used the concept of congruence between student needs and environmental presses. For example, if a student with a strong need for orderliness is enrolled in a college with a highly structured and orderly environment, the result is congruence of need and press. But if such a student is enrolled in a college with a relatively unstructured environment--one that is permissive and that emphasizes independent study and self-direction--the result is dissonance, defined as "an unstable needs-press combination." Moreover, dissonance

> must lead either to a modification of the press in a more congruent direction or to a withdrawal of the participants...For the individual case, a congruent relationship would be one producing a sense of satisfaction or fulfillment for the participant. Discomfort and stress are the concomitants of dissonance (Stern, 1970, p. 8).

John Holland's theory of vocational development is based on this model of congruence. As mentioned previously, Holland classifies occupations into six major areas of interest, or "environments," as follows:

> Realistic occupations (R) include skilled trades, technical and some service occupations.
>
> Investigative occupations (I) include scientific and some technical occupations.
>
> Artistic occupations (A) include artistic, musical, and literary occupations.
>
> Social occupations (S) include educational and social welfare occupations.
>
> Enterprising occupations (E) include mangerial and sales occupations.
>
> Corventional occupations (C) include office and clerical occupations (Holland, 1972, p. 2).

Specific occupations involve a combination of two or more of these environments; they can usually be described by three-letter codes. For example, the artistic environment includes such occupations as drama coach, philosopher, public relations person, decorator, and architect. But each of these occupations makes slightly different demands and requires somewhat different skills. So, given their common base in the artistic environment, each is differentiated by the second and third environments that make up its code. Thus, the code for drama coach is ASE (artistic, social, enterprising, in that order), the code for philosopher is ASI (artistic, social, investigative), the code for public relations person is AES (artistic, enterprising, social), the code for decorator is AIE (artistic, investigative, enterprising), and the code for architect is AIR (artistic, investigative, realistic).

Moreover, people can be classified--according to their interests and talents--using exactly the same code as is used for work environments. Generally, they have a dominant area of interest, plus secondary and tertiary areas. For instance, two people who were collaborating on a book took the Holland Vocational Preference Inventory and were coded SEA and SIA; in other words, though the interests of both fell primarily in the social category, and though both also had artistic interests, one of the authors was an "enterprising" type (which implies, among others things, persuasive and verbal skills), and the other was an "investigative" type (which implies a more scholarly personality).

After defining the six kinds of occupations environments, and the six corresponding personality types, Holland introduces the notion of congruence:

> different types require different environments...Realistic types flourish in realistic environments because such an environment provides the opportunities and rewards a realistic type needs. Incongruence occurs when a type lives in an environment that

> provides opportunities and rewards foreign to the person's preferences and abilities--for instance, a realistic type in a social environment (Holland, 1973, p. 45).

This model assumes neither stability nor change in adult career development. Rather it explains why change occurs, why some people feel satisfied with their jobs while others feel frustrated, discontent, and motivated to change.

Holland's highly theoretical model has some very practical applications. It is a particularly useful tool to the counselor working with students and adults for several reasons. First, although Holland's initial classification scheme was derived exclusively from research on college students, the latest revision is based on a more heterogeneous sample, including two-year college students, four-year college students, and employed adults. Second, because the basic six-category scheme is further divided into subgroups of occupations one can use it to measure direction and degree of change (whether of occupation or of college major). For instance, the student who changes major from Physics to Music is moving into a totally different area of interest, whereas one who changes major from Physics to Chemistry is moving to an adjacent area. Holland has developed a numerical system for coding such changes (Holland & Nichols, 1972, p. 271). Finally, adults and students can determine their own three-letter codes by completing The Self-Directed Search (1970), a relatively simple instrument designed to assess occupational interests, and then can look up their code in The Occupations Finder (1972) to learn what specific occupations have the same code. Using the example of a student with the three-letter code of RIE and a tentative career choice of mechanical engineer (RIE), Holland indicates that the counselor can increase the student's options by discussing other RIE occupations such as civil engineer or industrial engineer. Moreover, students who are somewhat uncertain about their initial choices can be directed to closely related occupations, and students who are completely undecided can explore various occupations congruent with their codes. This exploration is facilitated in that The Occupations Finder is cross-referenced with a six-digit number that refers to occupations codes in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles, a standard reference work that describes various occupations.

As Holland notes, this scheme permits explicit definition of the degree of conflict which a person may be undergoing. For instance,

> a boy trying to decide between engineering (RIEC) and farming (RIES) should experience little conflict. More problems would exist for someone majoring in chemistry, but coded IRAS, /or one majoring in/ law, but coded ESAI (Holland et al., 1972, p. 196).

Finally, Holland does not assume linear and sequential career development: preparation for a field, entrance into it, achievement within it, and retirement from it. Rather, he conceives of a person's life as a series of coded choices that can be studied for their patterns, stability, and mathematical relationships (Holland et al., 1972, p. 197).

Why, one may ask, is one person's code incongruent with his/her coded career or college major, while another's is not? What makes for mismatching of the personality code and the occupational environment code? There are several answers.

First, people may make an inappropriate initial choice because they lack self-knowledge or because they do not have adequate information about different occupations. For instance, many high school and college students are "talked into" particular career choices, by their parents, by their teachers, by their friends. Many low-income people enter the first training program or take the first job that comes along. Many women unquestioningly accept conventional assumptions about their capabilities and their "proper place" and thus limit their choices to supposedly feminine occupations. In short, many people are simply not in control of their occupational destinies.

Second, one's personal life or experience may render an initially congruent career choice incongruent. Mills points out that the norms of a specific occupation often make unanticipated demands that an individual cannot meet. For example, harmonious marriage is an occupational norm for ministers but not for lawyers or dentists. Thus, a minister whose marriage is failing may find it too uncomfortable to remain in the ministry. Similarly, a child analyst whose own children are extremely disturbed may feel it necessary to go into some other line of work. One cannot always predict, at the commencement of training, how one's personal situation will turn out; if it becomes such that it conflicts with the occupational norms, one may well be motivated to change occupations.

Third, one's interests may change over time; a person is not necessarily locked into a particular three-letter personality code for an entire lifetime. Both individual needs and environmental options can and do change along with age, family status, and other factors. Thus, an initially congruent career choice may become incongruent. One of the strengths of the congruence model is that it allows for such change rather than just attempting to predict it.

Intrigued as I am with the congruence model for explaining adult career development, it is necessary to point out that the model has limitations when applied to women. Holland's occupational classification system has been criticized on the grounds that it is based too much on yesterday's world, when women were severely limited in their choices. Any classification system in which occupations are sex-typed to some degree needs revision.

PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER

Work is of crucial importance to most adults, and increasingly more adults are undergoing crisis and dramatic change in the course of their work lives. But because vocational development theorists have concentrated on preadolescence and adolescence and have ignored adulthood--and particularly middle age--we are left

with a vacuum in career counseling for adults. The following points represent a beginning toward the construction of an adequate theoretical framework for understanding career development in adults.

Point 1. The concept of vocational maturity can be applied to every age group; it is not necessarily related to chronological maturity. The vocationally mature person is one who is actively involved in the choice process and in his/her vocational destiny. Moreover, since vocational development is not linear and sequential but cyclical, the individual may be regarded as vocationally mature at various points in life. As one's situation and self-concept changes and develops, so new vocational decisions may be required. The processes of exploration, involvement, and orientation are recurrent and continuous throughout life.

Point 2. Change of some sort--slight or drastic, voluntary or involuntary--is a characteristic of all careers. Some people may move from one occupational level to another, some from one interest area to another, still others from one enterprise to another. But all of these moves introduce people into new situations requiring new self-assessments. Indeed, even the person who stays in precisely the same job at precisely the same level throughout his work life may be said to experience change in the form of a depression in self-concept.

Point 3. The most useful construct for understanding career development and job satisfaction is that of congruence, as defined by Veroff and Feld and by Holland. If one's self-concept, interests, and needs are congruent with one's work environment, the result is satisfaction. But if one's self-concept changes, if one's interests and needs shift in new directions, to the extent that they become incongruent or dissonant with one's work environment, the result will be frustration, dissatisfaction, and a desire for change.

Point 4. This framework can serve as a guide for intervention. Dissatisfacton is not vague but concrete; it can be specifically defined. As adults discuss their problems with counselor, both can begin to pinpoint the causes of dissonance. This clarification can be a first step in exploring new career options, formulating new goals, and finding the means to implement these goals.

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LIFE IS JUST A BOWL OF CHERRIES?

Excerpt from Text: SECOND CHANCE
EVERYBODY'S GUIDE TO CAREER CHANGE

By

John W. Loughary and
Theresa M. Ripley, 1975

If the title of this book is intriguing enough for you to pick it up, then it is fairly safe to assume that some part of your life is less satisfying than you would like it to be. It's no secret that many people derive less pleasure out of living than they hope for, and it is relatively easy to convince yourself that no one else has it quite as bad as you do.

Your dissatisfactions may have to do with relationships with other people, with goals which you have failed to reach or simply with those concerns with which you must deal from day to day. Most relationships, goals, and daily activities hold great potential for satisfaction, and they also offer the possibility of dissatisfaction. The chief reason we develop friendships; choose a spouse and have children; the purpose of entering an occupation; and the reason we engage in leisure activities, for example, is the expectation that these relationships and activities will add to the richness of our experiences. But things can go wrong. A person whom we expected to be a source of pleasure can become instead a source of annoyance, pain or sorrow; a job that was once interesting or challenging can become boring or even threatening; a once interesting schedule of daily activities can become monotonous.

There are, in other words, many kinds of reasons for people wanting to make changes in their lives; and they would if only someone would give them a second chance. Now who in the world could really give you a second chance? No one. No one, of course, but yourself. True, you can't "start over," but you can provide yourself with an opportunity for a second chance: for making changes in your life which will lead to greater satisfaction.

Change is the name of the game in more ways than one. We all experience generally common life changes as we grow from childhood to maturity to old age. On the one hand, many of these changes offer potential for growth and increased satisfaction, and on the other for deterioration and mounting unhappiness and discouragement. There are also changes which you may desire and can bring about independent of your particular position in the life cycle. These potentially self-initiated changes can be every bit as important as those which sooner or later all of us must experience.

It is not change itself which is the issue. Change is inevitable in some form. The important consideration in regard to living a satisfying life is what you do about influencing the nature and outcomes of change.

For our purposes, we can view adult life as having certain stages, each ranging over a decade, more or less. One could easily find exceptions to these, but nevertheless they can serve as a means of clarifying the various kinds of changes with which Second Chance is concerned. Let us begin by taking a very brief look at the changes which generally characterize each of these several decades of the adult portion of the human life span, which for our purposes, begins with the assuming of independence for one's self and ends with death.

The Early Years: 20-30

Beginning somewhere near the age of 20 and ending more or less by age 30, most of us experience the initial adulthood stage. We finish our formal education, enter into a marriage or decide not to. There is concern about acquiring material goods and a home. There seldom seems enough money to meet personal and family needs, and job success is unknown. Occupational interest may be unstable and lead us from one job to another. For many women the restrictions of motherhood become firmly fixed, not to be shed for two or more decades. Friends become fewer in number and job and family concerns leave less time for spontaneous recreation. The future seems infinite - it seems certain that there is plenty of time for all that we want to do. Parents become part of the past. We and they now share adulthood. It seldom occurs to us during these years that the earlier restrictions associated with the parent-child relationship may in the future undergo a role reversal. At work we are the youngest, and sometimes resent assumption that seniority and age automatically bring superiority and opportunity. We are often frustrated by the "system," knowing we could handle more responsible jobs, if only we had the opportunity. We sometimes aspire to material pleasures which are beyond our means. Some of us try to obtain the good life in spite of our limited means and experience constant indebtedness; a few are required to deal with repossessions and bankruptcy. During these years many discover that marriage has its trials and problems, as well as joys. Most learn that children bring serious financial and emotional obligations, and that the luck-of-the-draw by which they acquire friends can lead to problems; our concerns for their development can be difficult to express, let alone implement. Others, who were certain at the beginning of the decade that the single or childless lifestyles were the answer, occasionally have doubts about their decision as friends become more involved in raising families and less available as companions. The first decade of adulthood offers many new opportunities and experiences. Some emerge from it pleased and eagerly anticipating the future. Others already have had a heavy dose of disappointment, and are less optimistic about what the future will bring. A few have become resigned to a dreary and hum-drum existence, and many, having survived the cultural shocks of marriage, family, and credit cards have taken a longer perspective of life; anticipating that the coming years will bring problems, but that eventually they can be overcome and some day (perhaps farther down the road than they had previously thought) there will be smoother going.

The Building Years: 30-40

The second decade of adulthood brings new changes. We are no longer the youngest on the job, and many of those who are younger are obviously eager to challenge our worked-hard-for positions. The last of the children are born and some others leave the relative calm of childhood and enter the often tumultuous area of adolescence. Those extra pounds put on during each of the past few years somehow total up, and losing them is not so easy. For some, occupational achievement has been significant and payoffs of professional recognition and financial remuneration urge them on to higher goals. For others, mostly women, the competition with the spouse's occupational or leisure interests becomes a serious but ill-defined contest. The rules of the game are unclear and appear to change with passing years.

Some, with the leaving of children during the latter part of this decade of life, find that there is no reason for continuing a marriage. Many acknowledge that the differences between the payoffs of their life style and those of friends are becoming greater, and thus become discouraged, envious or jealous. Making new friends becomes a rare event; everyone seems so preoccupied with their own concerns. Children become more outspoken; they request and sometimes take their independence without the experience and good judgment we know they lack. They want separate lives, and balk at participating in the family vacation. We want to trust them, but sometimes wonder if that is wise.

During this second decade of adulthood we sometimes wonder if we have "done the right things" regarding family and self. A growing number of us are thinking less about our hopes and goals; preferring to pursue the pleasures of the moment. Many of us have invested ourselves heavily in the achievement of our children, and the returns may appear to be disappointing.

The second decade of adulthood involves the most dynamic changes in the adult life span. It begins for most with seasoned and relatively unencumbered youth and ends with firmly established middle-age. Within these ten years we probably deal for the first time with more issues, problems and traumas than we have ever faced before, or will face in the future. Many of us come to accept conditions which will determine our life styles for the remaining years. This second decade of adulthood - from 30 to 40 - passes quickly, and its importance is understood by most of us only after we enter mature middle age: 40-50.

The Transitional Years: 40-50

Most people probably have a common awareness during their forty-first year or thereabouts; it occurs to us that we are past the mid-point in life - we have lived more years than we have remaining to live. Time, consequently, becomes more valuable. There probably won't be enough of it to accomplish all that we want. That we have failed to make those changes which we have been meaning to make for the past ten years is a preoccupying thought. It is clear that influencing the lives of some of our children is no longer possible. They are well on the way through their own journey of adulthood and drift farther away each year; and others, who have yet to cast off from the security of family, may seem even more difficult

to reach. Some experience nagging second thoughts about their choice to remain single or childless. It becomes clear to many that they have reached the end of the occupational ladder, and that it didn't extend as high as they had hoped. It is obvious to many that they have reached the peak of their earning power, and that dreams of foreign travel and material possessions will never become reality; there will probably never be a trip to Europe, a South Seas cruise, a vacation cottage, a business of their own, or early retirement. Health takes on greater importance. If the physical process of aging has caused us no problems, it is beginning to affect our peers. We seem to know an increasing number of people who are on medication, who become hospitalized, who must restrict their diet and physical activity or who have some serious health problem.

But as we reach the end of this decade, new opportunities and freedoms appear possible. The family is grown, the basic material requirements are less, there is usually more money left after the bills are paid than 10 years ago. There is a certain basic relief to having survived the past two decades (in spite of whether we feel we won or lost, at least that game is over). For many, there is less pressure, both from outside and self-imposed. What doesn't get done today or this week seems less important than in the past. As the fiftieth year approaches for many, there is a more reasoned view of the past; some regrets remain, but there is the realization that what is past is past, and that whatever is to be gained from life must be drawn from and built in the future. Those routines established during the last two decades can soon be altered. But altered how? What are the options. There has been such preoccupation with doing, with surviving, that some have forgotten how to dream and how to identify new paths. As the bondage of family is lifted, many feel lost and directionless - freedom is difficult when it is suddenly thrust upon us. Some recover quickly from the initial shock and set their sights anew, and others flounder for a time. But all prevailing is a growing urgency to enjoy life; to not waste the coming decade, the end of which many believe will begin the decline of life. The fifties, then, must be used wisely and to their full potential.

The Mature Years: 50-60

Some set out to capture the potential of this decade by attempting to return to a former. Others have no regrets about the past, and begin with an eagerness to enrich their lives with new experiences. The activities which result, however, may be the same. Health diets, weight reduction and physical fitness schemes, establishing new relationships and abandoning old, new personal grooming efforts and self-improvement programs ranging from serious reading to learning new athletic skills all represent attempts to extend and enhance satisfaction with living. Sometimes these efforts bring about their desired outcomes; sometimes they simply use up time, and sometimes they are unrewarding and abandoned.

The fifties can be a decade of increased isolation, loneliness and depression. Some have all but given up, and can't seem to muster the resources necessary for rejuvenation. Death, in addition to divorce, now becomes a more potent source of losing spouse and friends. Old patterns of behavior seem more difficult to abandon; there seems to be less energy. The younger generation

becomes a reality. We finally become convinced that 21-year-olds don't really look any younger than they did when we were 21, and accept, perhaps reluctantly, that its been a long time since we were 21. In spite of the many pleasures involved, becoming a grandparent is discomforting to some; after all, didn't we once think of grandparents as "old people" and we certainly are not old - no sir, not by any stretch of the imagination. "One is only as old as one thinks" (nevertheless - grandma and grandpa we are!).

While some maintain their positions of leadership at all levels of family and work, many more find the reins slipping to younger hands. Requests for advice may be fewer. Towards the end of this decade we may perceive that we have moved out of the mainstream; if the current is less demanding, so are the challenges. Many of our friends "age noticeably," and some take some pride (and some secretly marvel) in the fact that they have changed little over the years.

Resolutions to give up bad habits and establish good ones becomes more frequent as the close of the decade approaches. It is now clear to most that Autumn is nearer than Spring. Upon this realization, some value and guard time even more zealously; others become more detached; a few become bitter about the treatment which life has given them. The irrational -- those who blame other people, events and circumstances for their status in life -- tend to become more irrational. And those who have learned to accept responsiblity for themselves and who strive to determine their own destinies tend to retain a realistic optimism about the Golden Years.

The Golden Years: 60+

It is not chronology which makes the difference during the 60+ years, but more one's perspective, state of mind, mental health - or whatever one chooses to call it. Some of us are psychologically and mentally dried up at 60 (or before) and others alert and dynamic at 90 (or after).

Nevertheless, the golden years hold for most of us retirement, medicare, physical deterioration, grandchildren growing up, exclusion from leadership and other participation, increased experience with death, relatively huge amounts of discretionary time, and dependence on those who once were dependent upon us, to note only a few examples. We have the time so much wanted in youth, but without many of the resources of youth.

No one has expressed it better than G. B. Shaw's observation that,

> "Youth is a wonderful thing; what a crime to waste
> it on children", and we would add, "the young".

And while many use the golden years to extend and enhance life and the satisfaction they derive from it, others find it a time of loneliness, boredom, and a waiting room for death. Those past 60 often find themselves misunderstood by those who have yet to experience the conditions of retirement and all that is associated with the golden years - and this is only natural. Each of us has the experience of our own generation, and more or less those of the younger stages; and all but those in the golden years of life have at least one generation to look

to which has been through their current experiences. Those in the golden years, of course, do not; there is no group of people who have had the "golden years experience" and then moved on to another phase of life. This may account in part for the glowing picture often painted of the years past 60. The term itself has come to suggest a period of quiet, soft existence, in which cares and responsibilities are few, and time is abundant for contemplation and doing all those things which one always wanted to do. Many senior citizens would label such a suggestion "nonsense!", and would add that old age is just that! old age.

The Pursuit of Satisfaction

We have tried to illustrate that no matter what the stage of life, one not only encounters new problems and challenges, but also new opportunities for increasing the satisfaction derived from living. The message is not original. Life involves continuous changes - some of which are part of the life cycle and cannot be avoided, and some which we can initiate, and which have little or nothing to do with external events.

The key to leading a meaningful and satisfying life is the ability to effectively manage those changes which are an inescapable part of the life process, and initiating other changes which will maintain and increase satisfaction. The latter kind of changes may be directed towards adjusting to the changes in the life cycle - or independent of such external conditions.

As this is not the first time this observation has been made, neither is this the first book addressed to the issue of life change and satisfaction. Many are available, each at least implicitly offering some guide to self-help. There are generally three approaches taken by self-help books.

The first essentially offers sympathy and condolence. By overwhelming readers with descriptions of the trials and tribulations of miserable people it is hoped that they will see that relative to these miserable soul's, there own situations aren't nearly as bad as they believe. Books taking this approach offer no specific suggestions, although many carry the implication that readers can learn from observing the mistakes of others. Many people enjoy reading books taking this approach; it is probably true that misery does love company.

A second approach taken by self-help books concerned with changing one's life might be called the case-study approach. These books often describe in some detail the stories of people who overcome dissatisfying and even traumatic circumstances in life. They range from accounts of successful but dissatisfied executives who escape to tropical islands, to paraplegics who work to overcome their disabilities and become successful and satisfied executives. The stories they tell are meant to be inspirational and carry the implication that readers may apply the actions of these heros and heroines to their own lives. Many people enjoy these case studies and apparently find within them a source of motivation.

The third approach used by books concerned with helping people make changes which will lead to greater satisfaction with life might be termed the how-to-do-it perspective. Books taking this approach offer little sympathy and condolence, and few if any hero and heroines after which readers might model their own behavior. They tend to offer suggestions, ideas, and describe skills for making life changes.

Second Chance falls into this third category. Whether or not you can profit from reading Second Chance depends on the extent to which you are seeking sympathy, inspiration or specific suggestions for making changes in your life.

Our intended audience is people who can accept the position that the source of change in your life is you, and that you are more likely to make desired changes when equipped with certain ideas, skills, and information, than when supported by sympathy and inspiration. Now clearly, that position is neither attractive nor acceptable to many, and that is fine.

Because we do not want to mislead or disappoint readers with regard to our intentions, we try to be clear about our purposes from the start. If you are willing to make lists, complete exercises, and practice skills we will describe, then there is a good chance that you will enjoy Second Chance and find it useful. If, in other words, you are willing to become involved in the book and actively participate beyond reading its words, then it's you to whom we are writing. If you find this kind of participation uninteresting or tedious, then Second Chance is probably not for you. Whatever potential value the book may have will result from readers "interacting" with us by doing the suggested activities; not just reading about them.

Thus, if you are willing to invest some thought and effort to work at changing your career (life) then let's be on with it. Life may not be one big bowl of cherries, but it can have its sweet times. It's up to you.

TEXT OF MAJOR PRESENTATION

by

Alan D. Entine, Ph.D.
Assistant Academic Vice President
State University of
New York at Stony Brook
Stony Brook, New York

We seem to be living through a period of sustained economic crisis. During the past few years we have, as a nation, witnessed a series of interelated events which are causing us to redevelop our goals and priorities. The environmental crisis, the energy crisis, the fertilizer crisis, the world food crisis, the domestic housing crisis, the unemployment crisis, and, of course, the inflationary crisis are all too familiar to most of us. We can no longer shut our eyes, our ears, or our pocketbooks to the fundamental economic changes which are taking place on our globe. Modern communications and transportation have drawn nations tightly together in a web of economic interdependence. As a result, oil embargoes in the middle east rapidly affects gasoline pumps in our middle west; fertilizer shortages in Indiana can contribute directly to famine and starvation in India.

It is not the purpose of this conference to dwell on the dimensions of the current world economic disorder. It is, however, important to place our discussions in the context of the global changes which are occurring before our eyes. This is because the very rapid changes which are taking place will have important and direct impact upon the work, careers and life styles of Americans in their middle years. Let me be more specific.

The traditional pattern of career path and work in our country has followed a rather rigid chronological framework. Men would receive their education or training while they were young - in their teens and early or mid-twenties. A lifetime career or vocation was chosen during these years, and a career path was then followed for the next three or four decades. Job changes were accepted as part of the career trajectory; it was assumed they would nearly always be lateral or upward moves within the same vocational area. Retirement would begin in the early sixties (the major exception would be the uniformed federal, state and municipal services) and would be characterized by social security and pension income, and perhaps some part-time work. There would be more time for leisure and avocations.

Women's work patterns were more varied. The single woman would follow the male pattern except that her work was concentrated in the traditional female occupations: teaching, nursing, secretarial work, etc. If she chose a 'male' occupation, she was so delighted with her career that she was willing to work for less money than men in comparable positions and to forgo deserved promotions.

If she was married and white, she would work for a few years, and drop out of the labor force to bear and raise children. After the children were grown she would either resume work in a 'feminine' field or, devote her new freedom to volunteer work, and avocational interests. If she was a mother and nonwhite, she would never leave the labor force and would combine work with child rearing.

Admittedly, this is a simplistic overview of the career patterns in our economy. The important point for this conference is that career expectations and career paths were established in youth. There was little thought given to reformulating fundamental career decisions in ones mature years. These patterns were reinforced by vocational guidance counselors who were exposed to a multitude of vocational choice theories which emphasized irreversible career decisions made in the early years. In addition, institutional employment practices in both the public and private sectors have had a strong bias toward youth. Even today, some thirteen percent of persons unemployed who are between 45-54 are likely to be out of work for at least half a year; the corresponding percentage for unemployed persons twenty to twenty-four is only six percent. Thus older individuals have a harder time re-entering the labor market. This fact adds additional urgency to the need for occupational and career mobility in the middle years.

I would like to make several broad suggestions to indicate why the traditional chronological patterns of learning-earning-retirement will no longer be adequate to serve the work and career needs of our citizens. The first reason is related directly to my opening remarks. The fundamental economic changes taking place around us are very likely to affect the career expectations of many individuals. Rapid declines in certain industries and fields may be accompanied by rapid growth in others.

We have already seen what happened to aerospace engineers when the moon program was ended. Consider the impact of inflation on the automotive industry. Americans may decide to keep their automobiles for an average of eight or nine years instead of trading them in after three or four. This may be a very healthy move for the environment and our supply of natural resources but many individuals who entered that industry would, at all levels, need to find other work outlets. Many of these persons would be in their middle years. This theoretical example could become a reality for other industries too. The point is that rapid changes in technology or in the world economic order can confront individuals with the necessity of suddenly finding new careers in mid-life.

A second broad change occurring in our society encompasses our attitudes toward work. The recent studies of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare summarized in the Work in America report, indicate that job satisfaction had become an important priority for both blue and white collar workers. These findings have been echoed by studies made by the Department of Labor on the attitudes of youth toward work and by The American Management Association of the opinions of business executives toward career advancement and satisfaction.

Running through all these surveys are the findings that a sizeable proportion of our work force - there are variations among industries and work categories - are dissatisfied with the way they spend the major portion of their waking hours. Associated with their dissatisfaction can be unproductive and even anti-social behavior patterns - absenteeism, work slowdowns, alcoholism, etc. These individuals comprise an important component of the potential mid-life career change population. It is likely that many individuals would leave unsatisfying careers in middle years if they did not feel locked into their present occupations and if viable realistic alternatives were available which would lead to greater satisfaction and increased productivity. It is also possible that the jobs vacated by these individuals could provide satisfying and productive work options for others who were bored and dissatisfied with their careers. A third broad pattern of change in our economy concerns the relationship between work and retirement. The years spent in retirement are increasing owing to a rise in life expectancy combined with a decrease in the labor force participation rate among older workers. In 1950 a forty-five year old man had a work-life expectation of 20.6 years and a retirement-life expectation of 6 years. By 1968 his work-life expectation had diminished to 18.9 years while his retirement expectation had increased to 7.9 years. Looked at another way, the percentage of men in the labor force at age 60 decreased from 84% in 1954 to 74% in 1971. Increased availability of pensions combined with social security benefits have undoubtedly contributed to the decline of older persons in the work force.

Retirement comes much earlier in certain professions. In the military and many of the uniformed municipal and state services individuals are eligible to retire with substantial pension benefits after only twenty years of work. The options open to these individuals for embarkation upon mid-life careers are very great indeed. Many of these persons can train for their second career while in the terminal years of their initial vocational endeavors.

This pattern can serve as a very useful model to others in industry and the public sector who may be eligible to exercise retirement options at fifty-five or even fifty years of age. The recently enacted Pension Reform Act, by establishing minimum uniform vesting right standards, should facilitate the movement toward early retirement and mid-career flexibility.

A fourth area of change reflects the changing attitudes of women toward the world of work and of the world of work toward women. Increasing numbers of white women are either remaining in the work force or are returning to work in their middle and older years. (Remember that non-white mothers never left the labor force).

For example, the labor force participation rate for all women aged 25 to 29 was 44% in 1970; the comparable rate for women aged 45 to 49 in that year was 53%. By 1990 the labor force participation rate for all women aged 25-29 is expected to be 52%; at age 45 to 49 the participation rate is expected to be 58%.

Accompanying the increased number of women in the work force has been a change in the attitude and expectation of women toward their careers. We are witnessing a slow but steady disintegration of the male-female work stereotypes. We are also seeing intermittant and slow progress, spurred by both legal and political means, toward wage and status parity for men and women in various fields. The changing patterns of women in the work force pose special challenges for the individual in middle years. The woman who is returning to work may find herself requiring new skills and training before re-entering the labor market. In addition she may have to work out some adjustments in her home responsibilities as the needs of her children and husband become balanced within a new family life-style.

The woman who has been in the labor force without pause may find herself faced with the 'male' problems of job obsolescence, work dissatisfaction and premature retirement once she has won the battle for equal opportunity and equal wages.

There is a final area of change to be mentioned. Behavioral and social scientists have begun to pay increasing attention to the middle years as a focus for research and study. The previous assumption that middle age is a generally uneventful timespan for personality change and development is giving way to the recognition that these years can be a period of conflict, growth and change.

The work of Bernice Neugarten of The University of Chicago, Daniel Levenson of Yale and The Committee on Work and Personality in The Middle Years of The Social Science Research Council are harbingers of growing interest and concern for the middle-aged American. Theories of internally caused midlife crises are balanced by views which assay the impact of divorce, serious illness, the empty nest, grandparenthood, menopause, and unexpted death upon the middle years. The interrelationship between personal crisis and career crisis hardly needs to be stated. It is clear that growing recognition of the psychological and sociological factors affecting middle age will become significant threads in the emerging patterns of midlife career change.

These five forces - job obsolescence, work dissatisfaction, premature retirement, women in the work force and personality development in the middle years - are combining to give new meaning to the concept of career change in in the middle years. Individuals who need or desire mid-life career flexibility must travel a very hard road until the rigid framework of learning - earning - retirement which we described earlier is broken down. Let me suggest some strategies to achieve this goal.

First, we must provide adequate counseling facilities to individuals who desire mid-life career change. Older persons who are outside the educational and training mainstream are simply unaware of the curricular and career options which may be presently open to them. Individuals also need emotional support while they contemplate a work change and they need to be aware of both the costs and benefits of making such a change. Adequate counseling, made available in

adult or continuing education centers or through the personnel divisions of large organizations is a vital ingredient to successful mid-life career change.

As a corollary to this need, we must establish training programs for individuals who desire to enter the field of middle years career counseling. Existing programs of study in counseling and guidance focus primarily on the needs of youth. Adults who desire career changes have an entirely different set of motivations and expectations.

The National Vocational Guidance Association, by establishing a National Commission on Mid-life Careers has become aware of the new demands which are being placed upon its membership. Moreover we at Stony Brook are planning a series of multidisciplinary courses leading to a certificate of proficiency in mid-life career counseling. These courses will include contributions from the behavioral and social sciences, the health professions and the experiences of other nations and societies with these problems.

Second, we must find ways of providing financial support for those who are undergoing career changes in midstream. The need to retool for a new vocation may come at a time when family financial burdens may be at their highest. Some options may be initiated. Assuming additional training is required for preparation for the second career, financial aid should be available for the part-time older student in the same degree that it is available for the younger full time student. Possibilities for work sabbaticals and release time for study should be explored and encouraged. Union contracts should contain provisions for retraining workers in declining industries even if the retraining leads to a job away from the current employer. Subsidies from the public sector should be encouraged to underwrite the transition process leading to career flexibility.

Third, we must break down the age barriers to entry into various fields and professions. Numerous studies have shown that the ability to learn and the ability to perform effectively does not decline in the middle years (with the possible exception of jobs requiring sustained hard physical labor). The Age Discrimination in Employment Act protects the rights of workers between the ages of 40 and 65 in the market place. Yet it is still much harder for an older person to enter a new field than a younger one. Increased knowledge of the abilities and performance of older workers should help destroy the myths linking age and work in the job market. I believe that our professional schools and training centers have to take a new look at the qualities of the older applicant. It is nearly impossible, for example, for an individual to enter a medical school above the age of 28. The rationale is that it takes seven or more years to train a doctor and society needs a lifetime to recoup a return on that investment. Yet there is a shortage of doctors in our nation's depressed areas.

From my experiences, individuals seeking mid-life career changes often feel a sense of committment to humanity. Aware of the finiteness of their lifespan they often seek to enter a helping profession. Perhaps the medical needs of our deprived areas might be met by mature, motivated individuals who would enter medical school in their forties.

Perhaps too, the curriculum of medical and other professional schools might be adapted to meet the special abilities and needs of older students. A vital aspect of such curriculum revision would be courses and seminars which would facilitate an individual's return to a program of study after a hiatus of many years.

We must be realistic about the prospects of mid-life career change. For the vast majority of those considering career mobility in their forties and fifties, medical school is simply not one of the options. Other options though may be very viable. The projected increase of jobs in the service sector, especially in areas relating to health care delivery and the needs of an aging population should be a positive middle years work arena in the decades ahead. Other options including part-time work combined with retirement income, movement into the self-employed areas and husband-wife job sharing teams, may emerge as viable mid and late life career patterns of the future. Before concluding, let me say that a caveat is in order. Any mid-life career change should be contemplated thoroughly and carefully. Many persons who rejected their current occupations precipitously without planning for their second career have been caught short by an economic decline or other unfulfilled expectations. Again, the importance of proper counseling is a vital ingredient of the career change process.

One of the happiest consequences of the emerging interest in mid-life careers has been the coming together of business, labor, government and education in a combined effort to meet common needs. At Stony Brook our Mid-Career Counseling and Information Center will benefit from the creation of the Suffolk County Manpower Information System which is being built in our computer center with funds from The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act. The University of South Florida has brought together representatives from various institutions and sectors for a common discussion of educational and career flexibility in the middle years. New dimensions of inter-institutional cooperation may come from this conference which can meet the needs of mature citizens in this region, and serve as a model for other areas of the state and nation.

We are on the threshold of an exciting new perspective of the world of work. Let us look forward to tomorrow with realism, optimism and imagination.

SEMINAR II - CAREER DEVELOPMENT
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CAREER EDUCATION PROJECT - SOURCES OF MATERIALS

To encourage an exchange of information with others concerned about career development, the staff of the Career Education Project has prepared a film about the Project and experimental editions of ten publications.

A Series of Manuals. With one manual devoted to each of the Project's five major components, this series presents discussions of the principles and issues involved; explanations of the methods and procedures used; samples of the materials produced; and discussions of the staff, skills, and materials required. The series as a whole is designed to show how to plan and operate a comprehensive career counseling service for adults. However, individual manuals may be used by a wide variety of programs, as their titles suggest:

- Attracting Clients to Service-Oriented Programs.
- Designing and Operating a Career Counseling Service for Adults.
- Establishing and Operating a Career Resource Center for Adults.
- Developing Career-Related Materials for Use with and by Adults.
- Integrating Research and Evaluation into the Operation of Service-Oriented Programs.

A Film: Chris Begins Again. Designed to provide an overview of the Project's activities, this 26-minute, 16mm color film identifies components of the Project and describes the ways they interact to meet clients' needs. The film illustrates the impact of career decision-making on one client's life.

Bibliographies of Career-Related Materials. These annotated bibliographies describe career-related materials suitable for use with and by adults. Organized by subject, the bibliographies include prices and ordering information where possible. They are supplemented by a shelf list of the catalogued holdings of the Resource Center.

Products for Career-Concerned Adults. These four booklets are designed both for career-concerned adults and for those who work with such adults.

- The Career Development Series. This booklet, a single-volume adaptation of the Project's modular series, contains information and practical suggestions on five major areas of career development: self-assessment, exploring the world of work, finding appropriate training, overcoming obstacles to entering a career, and searching for a job.

- Women and the World of Work. Focusing on the concerns of women who seek to begin or resume a career, this describes today's working woman, examines her options, and presents practical suggestions for overcoming obstacles in planning for and implementing career decisions.

- From Liberal Arts and Sciences to Careers: A Guide. This booklet presents an overview of the problems that liberal arts and sciences graduates encounter in the labor market and focuses on ways to assess and plan such training and translate it into careers.

- External Degree Study: A New Route to Careers. External degree study is intended for those people who want to pursue post-secondary education but are unable to do it in a traditional manner. This booklet describes this nontraditional method of study, presents a list of major programs, discusses how to select and plan a program, and shows how external degree study might be used as a career preparation.

For more information, contact
Career Education Project
Education Development Center
55 Chapel Street
Newton, Massachusetts 02160
(617) 969-7100

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SEMINAR III MATERIALS

Counseling Needs of Adult Sub Groups

Dr. Mary Tatum Howard
Dean of Student Services
Hostos Community College
CUNY

COUNSELING BLACKS

by

Clemmont E. Vontress
Associate Professor of Education at
George Washington University in Washington, D.C.

As a subcultural group in our society, blacks have developed unique environmental perceptions, values, and attitudes which intrude in the counseling relationship, making it difficult for the counselor to establish and maintain a positive rapport with Negro clients. This article examines attitudinal ingredients posited by Carl Rogers for their relevance to this problem, and it suggests in-service training to help counselors and other professionals relate more effectively with inner-city blacks.

The terms culturally deprived, educationally deprived, socially handicapped, underprivileged, and disadvantaged are currently being used to describe those segments of the American population which continues to challenge social institutions, agencies, and professionals intent on improving the lot of the "other Americans." To date, ameliorative efforts have not been encouraging. Undoubtedly, one of the reasons for the apparent lack of success has been the labels themselves, for they imply that certain groups are limited or lacking in culture.

It should be clear that the social scientist's use of the term culture implies that everyone except a newborn babe "has culture" and is to some degree "cultured" (Sutherland, Woodward, and Maxwell, 1956, p. 17). Individuals who are born into a society assume the general behavior and dictates of that society and acquire its culture (Benedict, 1934, p. 235). Furthermore, it should be noted that complex societies such as ours contain not just one homogeneous culture but a multitude of ethnic and regional subcultures with which people identify and from which they derive distinctive values and norms. Each group, although simultaneously a part of the larger culture, considers its way of life natural. Strange groups, beliefs, or practices are treated, ipso facto, with suspicion and hostility.

Although there are several cultural minorities in this country, the group which demands attention most dramatically is the 19 million black Americans. Robbed of their traditions and pride in their past, these African descendants are still seeking acceptance by the white majority; but at almost every turn they are rebuffed and assigned a secondary status (Essien-Udom, 1964, p. 15).

The Negro's color has an isolating effect upon his activities. Social interaction is warped and confined by indelible marks of race. What majority members take for granted becomes a big issue for most Negroes: "Can I stop at this hotel to rest tonight?" "I wonder if they will let me in that place," or "Do you suppose they're hiring Negroes at that plant?" James Baldwin attributes

the root of the black man's dispute with America to the fact that he has so little freedom and power to direct his own affairs simply and solely because of his skin color (Jones, 1966). Control over the Negro's life covers several related areas: his education, employment, and income--thus his place in the social structure, his self-image, and his relations with whites.

It is understandable that the minority group sees the general environment as a hostile one and is therefore negatively oriented toward society (Pierce-Jones, Jackson, & King, 1959). Because of these intense feelings of Negroes, counselors--both black and white--are now asking questions about their relationships with the culturally different in our cities.

THE INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP

To Carl Rogers (1962), the relationship which the counselor forms with the client is the most significant aspect of the counseling process. It is more important than his knowledge of tests and measurements, the adequacy of his record-keeping, the theories he holds, the accuracy with which he is able to predict future behavior, or the university in which he received his professional training. A relationship characterized by sensitive and accurate empathy on the part of the counselor; by his high degree of congruence or genuineness and of regard, respect, and appreciation for the client; and by an absence of conditionality in that regard will in all probability be an effective, growth-promoting relationship.

Empathy

Achieving a positive level of attitudinal conditions may be difficult for counselors working with the culturally different because common experience shows that individuals find it more arduous to establish empathy with those unlike themselves. Empathy means that one feels as though he were experiencing someone else's feelings as his own. He literally stands in the other person's shoes.

To a great extent, empathy is a process of identifying and incorporating one's self with another person. When one identifies, he projects his being into others; when he incorporates, he introjects the other person or persons into himself. Both phases are ways in which the individual comes to sense the reality of others' experiences. The counselor who brings to the therapeutic encounter his own personal bias against racial and ethnic minorities will not be able to empathize with his inner-city clients; his racial hang-ups will directly or indirectly prevent him from using his professional skills in aiding his clients.

To overcome prejudices, whether racial or otherwise, is not easy; like most of the population, counselors are products of their culture. Thus, all too often they unconsciously make their own tastes or demands for excellence and perfection the measure of all goodness, pronouncing all that is broadly different from them imperfect and low or of secondary value (Lee, 1966, p. 342). Perforce, counselors who work in the inner city do a lot of soul-seaching, and in so doing, they may tip in the other direction. That is, the

unlike themselves, and toward society as a whole, the counselor may find it progressively difficult to accept the culturally different, no matter how hard he tries.

For example, the cries of Black Power are extremely disconcerting to most middle-class observers. White "friends" have fled in horror from civil rights organizations, and race relations are at a low ebb in this country. The intimacy and goodwill which supposedly existed between the races when the Negro demonstrated willingness to "stay in his place" show signs of evaporation now that black people indicate that they are no longer willing to accept "their" place (Killian & Grigg, 1964, p. 8). In fact, there is no indication that more than a minority of white people, either in the South or the North, are psychologically prepared yet to extend either friendship or equality to the Negro.

CLASS DIFFERENCES

Even if race were not a factor in the consideration of positive regard, class differences would still intrude in any attempt to relate to culturally different individuals in our society. Rosenblum (1959) indicates that prejudice is definitely related to social class identification, i.e., the higher one's social class identification, the more likely he is to be prejudiced toward ethnic minorities. To achieve a high degree of positive regard for people who are different, the counselor must learn more about their way of life and their ethnic and social values and he will have to overcome his own prejudices.

However, positive regard per se is not enough. The counselor does not enjoy the luxury of choosing the clients whom he wishes to accept completely. Middleton (1963) points out that alienation is pervasive among the black population in this country, and there is reason to believe that he is right. Many ghetto inhabitants perceive their lives as empty and hopeless; their activities, normless; for many of them, trying to make a living is futile. Thus, they are forced to hustle, to "make it" any way they can.

In our great urban areas counselors find themselves relating to dope addicts, pushers, criminals, and mothers given to serial mating. Those who call themselves counselors are put to the test in accepting such individuals. In fact, a counselor may find his own values being challenged. He may be referred to as "sick," "a square," and the like. Should he write off such people as hopeless, beyound help, and send them away from his office or place of work? Of late, some white counselors have indicated harassment not only by their counselees but by their black co-workers as well. Often, their colleagues tell them that they "don't understand" or "can't understand" simply because they are white. Unfortunately, some white counselors are beginning to believe it. Little do they or their Negro co-workers realize that if black clients see white counselors as the enemy, they are apt to see Negro authoritarian figures as something far worse--collaborators with the enemy. Thus, the problems of relating to culturally different Negroes are somewhat the same for black counselors as they are for their white counterparts. Assuming that the counselor does exemplify and honestly view his clients with all the attitudinal ingredients discussed, there is still the problem of the client's perception of the counselor. It is not enough for the counselor to sit back and declare himself warm, accepting, and sensitive to all people. What he is must be communicated to the client. How this is done is not clear; however,

one thing seems definite. An inner-city person, especially the youngster, can size up a counselor in a very few minutes. If the counselor is a "good guy," the client will know it.

BLACK SELF-HATRED

Counselors also need to become familiar with the psychodynamics of the culturally different Negro in this country. A well-known phenomenon among members of minority groups is hatred of the group, its culture, its members, and even the self for being among the members. Many if not all American Negroes appear to suffer from a series of problems in identification, stemming from culture conflict, caste restrictions, and minority status, mediated in part through family structure (Brody, 1961). Basic to their personality problems is self-hatred, which can be attributed to the actual and legal status they enjoy in this country (Ausubel and Ausubel, 1963).

The black man is caught up in the web of a white society. In spite of his blackness, he thinks white and wishes to be white, which is an impossibility (Vontress, 1966a). He acquires the same prejudices that whites acquire, and thus it is no surprise to learn that Negroes, like whites, are prejudiced against Jews. It is also no surprise that they are prejudiced against themselves. They live in an anti-Negro society. This fact, in spite of the Black is Beautiful rhetoric, seems obvious. Current chauvinistic language, dress, and behavior may be interpreted as reaction formation, not self-pride.

Negro self-hatred is a significant consideration for counselors working in urban areas. Hatred against oneself is inseparable from hatred of others, even if on the surface the opposite seems to be the case (Broyard, 1950). This would suggest that change in the Negro's attitude toward himself would eventuate in change in his attitude toward the counselor. Thus, it is imperative that the counselor not resign himself to psychological exclusion by blacks. As he works to help the black client understand and accept himself, the counselor should also find that he is more readily accepted.

Helping the black child rid himself of self-hatred will also bring about other significant changes (Vontress, 1966b). Important among these is his attitude toward and achievement in school, for hate impedes the learning process. The hating child is difficult to teach. He is different from the loving child, who is the living child. He lives to love himself and others. He lives to learn, because learning is loving. He loves new ideas, new thoughts, and new feelings that make life worth living. The hating child fears learning as well as loving, since both elements may change his way of coming at life, and to change is unpleasant. Thus, the culturally different black child is often angry and anxiety-laden. The anxiety-provoking feeling of being angry leads him to be removed, hesitant, and mistrustful. He is afraid to look into things too deeply. Indeed, a student who does not possess a high regard for himself and his abilities is not likely to strive for achievement in or out of school.

The Negro's feelings toward himself are also related to his willingness to reveal himself to others. He feels his minority status so deeply that he is reluctant to bare his feelings to anyone else, even to those closest to him (English, 1957). This attitude has direct bearing on the counselor's ability to assist culturally different individuals. Self-disclosure is a significant factor in the process of effective counseling, and if an individual is reluctant to make himself known to another, he sets up an impediment to his own personal growth.

PROBLEMS OF THE BLACK MALE

It should be pointed out, however, that although Negroes consistently disclose less about themselves than do whites, reserve in self-disclosure is primarily a male phenomenon (Jourard & Lasakow, 1958). That is, the Negro girl will not present the same degree of challenge to the counselor as does the boy, probably because the girl is more self-accepting than the male. The love and acceptance she has received in the home make her more self-assured and more readily accepting of other people. Because of those feelings, she can also outstrip the Negro boy in school. This undoubtedly helps to explain why most Negro students in honors classes in inner-city schools are female; it may also help to explain why almost two-thirds of all Negro students in college today are female--just the opposite of the white situation.

It is imperative that educators and counselors in particular concentrate much effort on helping Negro boys grow into well-adjusted, responsible citizens despite the drawbacks black males have in their backgrounds. Negro matriarchy, for example, continues its debilitating effects on developing males. Many serious social problems, such as apathy, sex-role confusion, delinquency, and mental disorders have been attributed to the effects of a family environment in which the father is absent or ineffectual (Parker & Kliener, 1966). In this connection, it should be emphasized that the mere presence of the like-sexed parent in the home is not enough to promote identification with him. The process is influenced by the degree of affection accorded the child and by the extent to which the child's needs are gratified.

In order to alleviate some of the problems connected with the matriarchy, it may be necessary for school counselors to initiate group counseling for parents. Attempts need to be made to help parents assume appropriate social sex roles in the home so that both boys and girls will grow up to accept and appreciate their proper roles. Unless some progress is made in this direction, it is predicted that Negro boys will continue to show increasing disenchantment with marriage, as Broderick (1965) has indicated. Such an attitude will lead to further disintegration of black ghetto families.

Here, it seems important to point out that significant regional differences have been noted in blacks born and bred in the North and those who grew up in the South. Although Southern-bred Negroes are outwardly reserved and apparently well-adjusted, in reality they are apt to be more emotionally disturbed than their Northern counterparts (Karen, 1958, p. 159). They have had to fight harder not to show their anger and frustration from having to live under caste restrictions. In Northern cities, the Negro frequently has an illusion of freedom that grows out of the more impersonal atmosphere there and the fact that Negroes in the great cities have built up a separate life of their own. Because of his illusion, the Northern-bred youngster is apt to display his true feelings much more readily than the Southern-bred youth. Thus, the counselor should find it considerably easier to establish what appears to be a positive rapport with Negroes born and reared in the South. He should not, however, be duped by the client's loquacious and obsequious over-affability for often behind this facade lurks potentially explosive hostility and destructive tendencies.

That counselors and educators should devote some time to working with parents has already been suggested. In this connection, it is important to note that older Negroes suffer some of the same personality problems which

beset their children. Throughout their lives, blacks have sought to suppress their true feelings and have used various mechanisms to conceal their anger and resentment. Through prolonged usage, these protective devices have become established among many older Negroes (Lief, 1962). The original resentment has burned out. Along with this, the individual's productivity is usually seriously damaged. By middle age, despair has given way to resignation and apathy. Much of his life is role stereotyped, ritualistic, and minimally expressive of genuine feelings. Thus, counselors should be aware that the everything-is-all-right attitude may be a strongly built wall, designed to protect bruised and bleeding personalities from "the slings and arrows of outrageous fortune."

CONCLUSION

Terrible social spectra loom ominously over this country, threatening to rip it apart at the seams. Basic to the awesome dilemma is the middle-class person's inability or unwillingness to understand and relate to cultural minorities in our society. This inaptitude is so pervasive that it permeates the ranks of counselors, teachers, and other professionals whose roles imply major concern for assisting the socially and economically disenfranchised in the upward mobility process.

The problem has been delineated. Now, what can be done to begin solving it? Somehow, agencies and institutions must make do with the crop of professionals already available. They are simply all we have. Present findings indicate two alarming situations. First, there are not enough professionally trained counselors to meet present and future demands. Second, the ones available need retraining to cope with the pressing problems presented by the culturally different.

Urgently needed is in-service training for counselors who meet face to face with inhabitants of our decaying cities. The primary goal of such training should be that of sensitizing therapeutic professionals to the nature and needs of cultural minorities. Efforts must be made to help them relate to people who have hated themselves for three centuries.

Also, all professionals who work with culturally different clients and charges need to become more committed. Presently, their commitment is questioned not only by concerned middle-class observers but by ghetto residents as well. How can professionals convince slum inhabitants that they (the professionals) care when every day at quitting time they see school teachers and counselors, both black and white, scurrying for their sleek, expensive cars so they can hasten back to suburbia, away from the squalor and the stink of the ghetto?

Talk is easy, but action often betrays verbalizations of commitment and dedication. If professionally responsible people do care, now is the time to show it by helping others to care. To prove to people that professionals do care, it may be necessary for the professionals to move back to the inner core of our great cities; it may mean that they must acquire the zeal and dedication of Peace Corps or VISTA workers.

Although everybody will not be psychologically capable of doing this, an effort must be made to acquaint counselors with the nature and needs of people entrapped in the ghetto, people who find themselves entombed in a caste of pigmentation, people who,

if something is not done and done quickly, have nothing to anticipate but a life of misery and shame. For counselors and educators to declare business as usual either in their attitudes or behavior is to commit professional and social suicide.

To be sure, educators and particularly counselors need to look at and study the nature and needs of black people in the ghetto, but more importantly, they need to look harder at themselves and their attitudes toward people who are different.

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SPANISH-SPEAKING AMERICANS:
THEIR MANPOWER PROBLEMS AND OPPORTUNITIES

(Taken from the 1973 Manpower Report of the President)

Americans with a Spanish-speaking heritage number close to 10 million in the mainland United States. Representing about 5 percent of the population, they are the country's second largest minority group.

Many of these Spanish-speaking people face problems of social and economic deprivation and barriers to equal employment opportunity, some also affecting other minorities, some-like the language barrier-applying particularly to this group. The problems of the Spanish speaking are of long standing but have only recently become the focus of national attention and action. Spanish-speaking leaders have helped to evoke this new awareness and understanding of their people's needs. They have stressed the need for more comprehensive data on such elemental facts as the numbers of people of Spanish heritage in different parts of the country, their education, employment status, occupations, and income. And they have called for new and intensified program action to open wider opportunities for this minority group.

This chapter reflects the significant progress made during the past few years in both these directions. The first part presents a manpower profile of Spanish-speaking Americans, drawing upon the 1970 census, which provided the first comprehensive data for this segment of the population, as well as on other new sources. The second part recounts the major recent developments in manpower and related programs for the Spanish speaking, especially the disadvantaged.

Despite their shared Spanish-language background, the people variously denoted as Spanish speaking or of Spanish heritage are a heterogeneous group. They represent, in fact, a microcosm of this country's ethnic diversity. Somewhat paradoxically, not all speak Spanish themselves, though most of them do and all have ancestors who did. Some are recent immigrants or of foreign parentage, while others come from families that were living in the Southwest or Puerto Rico before these areas became part of the United States. By far the largest group-well over 5 million, or nearly three-fifths of the estimated total number-are of Mexican origin or descent. More than 1.5 million-about 1 out of every 6-are Puerto Ricans (not counting the 2.7 million in the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico).[1] Well over 600,000 are Cubans,[2] the majority of them refugees who have entered the United States since 1959, though some are from families long established in this country. Finally, a very large number, approaching 2 million altogether, came from or trace their descent to another Spanish origin, most often Central or South America.

These different groups of Spanish-speaking people are concentrated in different parts of the United States. The great majority of Mexican Americans live in the Southwest, though significant numbers have moved to other sections of the country. Puerto Ricans are heavily concentrated in New York City, and most Cubans live in Florida, with smaller concentrations of both groups in other metropolitan areas. Within each of these areas, many of the Spanish speaking live in distinct, close-knit neighborhoods, either by choice or because they cannot afford or are barred from housing elsewhere. Sometimes these neighborhoods are in city slums, sometimes in poverty-stricken barriors on the fringes of metropolitan centers.

Partly because of their concentration in separate urban neighborhoods (or, in the case of some Mexican Americans, in rural enclaves), many Americans of Spanish background have persistent English-language difficulties which may not be overcome even in the second generation. The frequent movement of people back and forth between Puerto Rico and the mainland tends to reinforce this language barrier, as does the continuing inflow of immigrants from Mexico and the daily commuting to work in border areas of the United States by substantial numbers of Mexican residents.

All these factors have the effect of deepening and prolonging the cultural isolation of the Spanish speaking from the mainstream of the population. Mechanisms for reducing this isolation for communication across ethnic lines in both the job market and other aspects of economic and social life have been generally inadequate. And in many communities, ethnic prejudice and discrimination have been additional obstacles, especially for the small numbers who have the added handicap of being black or a member of another racial minority group.

To these difficulties must be added that of inadequate education among both Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans, especially in the older age groups (discussed later in this chapter). The relative numbers with a high school education or better have been rising rapidly, and the current rates of school attendance among Spanish-speaking children promise further progress in this direction. But for the present, lack of education and lack of knowledge of English are compounded obstacles to satisfactory, well-paid employment for many Spanish-speaking adults.

Probably the best single measure of the disadvantaged economic and social situation of the people of Spanish background is their family income. In 1971 the median income for all families of Spanish origin was $7,500, not quite three-fourths of the median income figure for all American families ($10,300), though above that for black families ($6,400). The families of Puerto Rican background were the worst off, with a median income of only $6,200.

The relatively large proportion of Spanish speaking workers in poorly paid jobs is clearly a major reason for their low average income. Significant and rising numbers of individuals from this group hold professional, technical, and managerial positions of many types, and much larger numbers are in other white-collar and skilled occupations. But the proportion in laboring, farm, and service jobs-the lowest-level occupations-is half again as high among workers of Spanish heritage as among white workers generally, though by no means as large as among Negroes (according to 1970 census data presented later in this chapter).

The above-average incidence of unemployment among Spanish-speaking workers is another factor which tends to reduce their incomes. In March 1972, the unemployment rate for workers of Spanish origin or descent was over 8 percent, about a third above the overall national rate.[3]

The manpower and related programs discussed in the final sections of this chapter are directed at these problems of joblessness and low-level employment. Their goal is to help Spanish-speaking workers qualify for and enter more skilled occupations, offering both higher wages and promise of steady jobs.

Workers of all ages are served by these programs, but a major focus is appropriately on the young. Children and youth represent a much larger proportion of the Spanish speaking than of the total population, either white or black, owing principally to the high birth rates among people of Spanish background. The proportion of Spanish-speaking youth in need of jobs is already high, and many more will enter the labor force in the near future. It is essential to afford these mounting numbers of young jobseekers, present and prospective, the training and other services they need to find satisfying employment and become productive members of the work force.

A Manpower Profile of the Spanish Speaking

The Population of Spanish Background

By far the most comprehensive information so far collected on the population of Spanish background is provided by the 1970 census. Before that, little statistical information had been compiled on a national basis for this segment of the population, partly because of the difficulties inherent in identifying and enumerating satisfactorily the diverse ethnic groups involved. Members of these groups have sometimes been identified on the basis of their own or their families' use of the Spanish language, sometimes on the basis of their Spanish surnames or the country of their own or their parents' birth, or by self-identification as of Spanish origin or descent. Population counts and other statistical findings may differ considerably depending on which of these approaches is used.

The 1970 census broke new ground in using a combination of definitions, so as to obtain as comprehensive a picture as possible of the American people of Spanish background. Altogether, there were 9.6 million Spanish-language people in the 50 States and the District of Columbia in 1970, plus some 500,000 others with Spanish surnames-yielding a total of slightly over 10 million.

This estimate makes no allowance for probable census undercounts or overcounts. The census is supposed to count everyone resident in this country, legally or otherwise (except some diplomatic personnel). But persons here illegally probably tend to avoid census takers, and the number of Mexicans who are illegal entrants to the United States is in the hundreds of thousands.[4] In addition, difficult problems are involved in enumerating the sometimes mobile population in urban low-income areas. The magnitude of the undercount, however, is unknown, as is the extent of offsetting overcounts (e.g., the inclusion in the Spanish-language total of Anglo spouses of Spanish-speaking people).

In analyzing the ethnic origins and the social and economic problems and characteristics of the Spanish-background population, it is necessary to rely on slightly less comprehensive data. This chapter will use data from the 1970 census or more recent sample surveys for groups defined on the basis either of Spanish language, Spanish heritage, or Spanish origin or descent. Each of these broad definitions includes not only first-and second- generation immigrants but also members of subsequent generations who still maintain their

identify as Americans of Spanish background. However, each definition yields a slightly lower total population estimate for the group (around 9.1 to 9.6 million) than the combination estimate already cited.[5]

The size of the major ethnic subgroups within the Spanish-background population is best indicated by a 1972 survey, which showed that about 5.3 million U.S. residents considered themselves of Mexican origin, 1.5 million of Puerto Rican origin, and 630,000 of Cuban origin. In addition, 1.8 million said they were of Central American, South American, or other Spanish origin.[6]

A large number of Americans of Spanish background were born outside the United States. In 1970, there were about 760,000 people in this country who had been born in Mexico and 440,000 born in Cuba. Also, close to 1.6 million had parents born in Mexico and over 120,000 were of Cuban parentage. The number of persons of Puerto Rican birth or parentage in the continental United States was nearly 1.4 million.

As a comparison of these two sets of figures indicates, probably less than half of all Mexican Americans are first-or second-generation immigrants-reflecting the fact that Mexicans have been entering the United States in large numbers for more than 60 years. In contrast, the vast majority of the Puerto Ricans and Cubans have been in this country for only one or, at most, two generations.

Large-scale immigrations, coupled with high birth rates, has led to rapid growth in the Spanish-background population. Between 1960 and 1970, the population of Mexican birth or parentage increased by 35 percent. The relative increases in the numbers of first-and second-generation Puerto Ricans and Cubans in the country were naturally much greater (55 percent and 351 percent, respectively), reflecting their recent influx.

EDUCATION

Americans of Spanish heritage still lag far behind the national average in educational attainment, but they are making rapid strides in eliminating the illiteracy that has so long handicapped them in competing with the Anglo population. In 1972, 1 out of every 5 adults of Spanish origin (those aged 25 or over) lacked the 5 years of education generally considered essential to achieve literacy- four times the corresponding figure for the general population. However, the illiteracy rate among Spanish-speaking Americans is far lower in the younger than the older age groups.

Along with this decline in illiteracy has come a rapid rise in the rate of high school graduation. Among Spanish-speaking Americans aged 25 to 29, nearly half had 4 years of high school education or better-four times the proportion with this much education among those aged 65 or over. The gap in high school completion rates between the general and the Spanish speaking population remains very wide even in the younger age groups, but it is narrowing.

Educational Differences Among States and Ethnic Groups

Though illiteracy is being rapidly reduced in all Spanish-speaking groups, there are great differences in educational attainment among these groups and also from State to State. In the five Southwestern States where the bulk of the Mexican American population resides, the median years of school completed by persons of Spanish heritage ranged from 7.2 years in Texas to 10.6 years in California in 1970. Puerto Ricans lag far behind the Mexican Americans (except those in Texas) in level of education; median years of schooling completed by adult Puerto Ricans in three Mid-Atlantic States ranged from 8 to 8.6 years. Persons of Cuban origin are much better educated: the median educational attainment for Americans of Spanish heritage in Florida was over 11 years.

In part, these variations in educational attainment reflect differences existing before entrance into this country. Whereas Cubans have come here with a relatively high level of educational attainment, Puerto Rican immigrants, as a group, have had relatively little education before arrival in the continental United States and this is probably even more true of Mexican immigrants. In addition, Spanish-speaking Americans long established in this country have often been isolated from the rest of the population by their poverty and by discriminatory as well as self-imposed barriers, so that they have been slow to acquire English-language skills and, thus, start on the part to educational advancement.

Knowledge of English

Improvement in English-language skills, both cause and consequence of better educational opportunity, is clearly a major factor in the sharp rise in educational attainment among the younger people. A 1969 census study found that 60 percent of the people of Spanish origin aged 16 to 24 who grew up in homes where English was the customary language had completed at least 12 years of school, compared with only about 30 percent of those from Spanish-language homes.

Accordingly, it is encouraging that illiteracy in English is declining rapidly among the Spanish speaking as a group. Although only about 3 out of 4 adults of Spanish origin (aged 25 and over) could read and write English in 1969, 9 out of every 10 young people (aged 10 to 24) reported that they could do so. Among Americans of Mexican origin, the proportion reporting inability to read and write English was 28 percent for the adults but only 5 percent for the younger group. For Puerto Ricans, however, the corresponding figures were higher (about 40 and 20 percent, respectively), pointing to a persistent problem of illiteracy in English even among the youth.

Educational Attainment of Women

American women of Spanish heritage lag behind their men in both educational attainment and acquisition of English-language skills. In contrast to Negro women (who are better educated than Negro men, except in the youngest age groups) and to white women generally (whoe median level of education is the same as that of white men), women of Spanish heritage have, on the average, about a half year less education than their men. The median level of schooling was 9.4 years for these women in 1970, compared

with 9.9 years for men. Similarly, only about 2 out of 3 women of Spanish origin aged 25 years and over could read and write English in 1969, compared with 3 out of every 4 men.

The fact that Spanish-speaking women tend to have large families and to stay at home at least until their children are grown has contributed to these lags in education and acquisition of English-language skills. Since they are less likely to enter the labor force than black women or all white women as a group, they have less economic incentive to seek educational opportunities. How quickly women of Spanish background will narrow the gap in education and employment between themselves and women of other ethnic backgrounds cannot be predicted. It is significant, however, that among young women of Spanish origin (those aged 10 to 24), the proportion who can read and write English is now 9 our of every 10-the same as for young men.

Educational Progress of Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans

Although illiteracy is declining rapidly among the Spanish speaking generally, there are great differences among the major ethnic subgroups in the rate of progress toward wider achievement of high school diplomas. Mexican Americans have moved particularly fast in this direction; the proportion with 12 or more years of schooling in 1972 was three times as great among those aged 25 to 29 as in the 45- to 54-year-old group. In contrast, among Puerto Ricans, the relative number with at least a high school education was only 50 percent higher in the younger than the older group.

These are sizable gains. Nevertheless, youth of Spanish background still have far to go to equal the educational attainment of the general population, as is shown by their high school dropout rates. In 1970, only 83 percent of the 16- and 17-year-olds of Spanish heritage were enrolled in school, compared with 90 percent of white youth generally. The highest dropout rates were reported for Puerto Rican youth; in the three Mid-Atlantic States where they are concentrated, 1970 enrollment rates among Puerto Rican 16- and 17-year-olds ranged from 68 percent (in Pennsylvania) to 77 percent (in New York), whereas 92 to 93 percent of all white 16- and 17-year olds in these States were in school.

Although the proportion completing high school is smaller among young Puerto Ricans than either Mexican American or Cuban youth, those who succeed in acquiring diplomas are far more likely to enter college than are high school graduates in the other ethnic groups. A recent followup study in New York City found that 62 percent of the 1971 Puerto Rican high school graduates entered college. Large numbers of these youth were enabled to do so by the open admissions policy in effect at the City University of New York (CUNY).[7] In contrast, the proportion of Mexican American high school graduates entering college in 1970 was only 1 in 3 in New Mexico and still smaller in Colorado (fewer than 1 in 5) and in Texas (not even 1 in 6).[8]

The proportion of Spanish-speaking youth attending college is clearly lower than that of Anglos, despite recent gains. This is true not only in the Southwest but also in New York and other sections of the country. Rates of

college attendance and graduation for youth of Spanish background are higher than those for blacks, however, and they are increasing-as are the comparable rates for the total population and for blacks.

FOOTNOTES

1. Comprehensive data on the manpower characteristics and problems of residents of the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, comparable to those for mainland residents of Spanish heritage, were not available from the 1970 census when this chapter was prepared. The Manpower Profile of the Spanish Speaking, which constitutes the first part of the chapter, is, therefore, limited to residents of the 50 States and the District of Columbia. The information on manpower and related services to the Spanish speaking, however, covers Puerto Rico as well as the mainland.

2. This estimate, based on the 1970 census, may represent a substantial undercount of the number of Cubans in the United States, in view of the estimate by the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service cited below of recent immigration of Cubans.

3. In the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, where severe unemployment has been a long-standing problem, the jobless rate was estimated at 12 percent in March, 1972.

4. Of the more than 420,000 deportable aliens located in 1971, 83 percent were Mexican. See 1971 Annual Report (Washington: U. S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service), p. 8. According to some sources, it is probable that, for every alien apprehended in the Southwest, another has escaped detection.

5. The data in this chapter are based on the 1970 Decennial Census and also on the Current Population Survey of the Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce. In data on the Spanish-background population, these sources used several definitions frequently referred to in this chapter: Spanish language-persons who had the Spanish language spoken in the home as a child and all other persons in families in which the head or wife reported Spanish spoken in the home as a child; Spanish origin or descent-persons who identified themselves as of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central or South American, or other Spanish origin or descent; and Spanish heritage. Spanish heritage is a summary concept utilized in presenting national data in the 1970 census. It includes persons of Spanish language and others of Spanish surname in the five Southwestern States (Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas); persons of Puerto Rican birth or parentage in New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania; and Spanish-speaking people in the remaining 42 states and the District of Columbia. This definition excludes Cuban and other non-Puerto Rican Spanish-speaking Americans in the Middle Atlantic States.

   Data on the Spanish heritage population in the five Southwestern States, the three Middle Atlantic States, and Florida will often be used as an indication of the characteristics and problems of Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, and Cubans, respectively.

6. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 238. Other Spanish origin includes Fillipinos, Spaniards, and some persons of multiple Spanish ethnic origin. About 95 percent of all Spanish-speaking Americans are white, 3.3 percent are black, and 1.9 percent are of other races, primarily American Indians and Fillipinos. Unless otherwise specified, all overall data for whites and blacks presented in this chapter include, respectively, white and black people of Spanish background.

7. Under this policy all local high school graduates are eligible for college admission. See Arthur Blank, Margaret Konefsky, Leonard Kogan, and Lawrence Podell, The Graduates Restudied: A Comparison of the Follow-up of New York City High School Graduates of 1970 and 1971 (New York: Center for Social Research, The Graduate School and University Center, The City University of New York, September 1972).

8. S. P. Marland, Jr., U.S. Commissioner of Education, "Completing the Revolution," a speech given at New Mexico Highlands University, Las Vegas, N. Mex., on June 5, 1972.

A FRAMEWORK FOR COUNSELING WOMEN

by

Nancy K. Schlossberg
Associate Professor of Guidance and Counseling
Wayne State University, Detroit.

"The goal is to develop human beings who are free to act in ways that are appropriate to their interests and their values--not their sex."

Many adult women have secret dreams they have harbored but never expressed, vague feelings about wanting to do something but not knowing what, frustrations about their inability to advance in their fields, and dissatisfactions with their prescribed roles. But women have been limited in their decision-making possibilities because of societal limitations on their dreaming and because of the difficulties in impelementing dreams that include an achievement component.

Through stategies combing counseling, guidance, and social activism, counselors can be part of a liberating force that will enable women to expand their horizons and implement their dreams.

THE DECISION-MAKING FRAMEWORK

All of us fantasize and explore the future. Some of our dreams turn into reality; others fade away. Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963) developed a decision-making paradigm in which decisions are viewed as having two major stages: anticipation and implementation. During the anticipation stage, one fantasizes, role plays, dreams; in short, explores. Such exploring and fantasizing are as common for the mature woman reentering the labor market as they are for the kindergarten girl playing house, hospital, or school. As the anticipatory stage unfolds, the individual begins to consider numerous alternatives, then stabilizes her thinking on one of the alternatives. At this point the decision crystallizes and a choice is made.

The second stage requires implementing the fantasized choice. It begins when one enters the new system; that is, enrolls in graduate school, begins a new job, sees a divorce lawyer, moves to a new town. After induction into this new system, the individual gains a sense of herself in her new role, leading to integration.

The counselor's problem becomes apparent when one looks at the decision-making process in relation to women. The anticipation stage sets the parameters of choice for women. It is no surprise to discover that women's vocational decisions are limited, as evidenced by the restricted areas in which they dream. We know that children stereotype occupations by sex (Schlossberg & Goodman, 1972b). Girls see themselves as nurses and teachers, while boys see themselves as mechanics and doctors. If young children's horizons are restricted to certain fields, if young children see mothers as cooks, cleaners, and nurses, and fathers as workers, doers, and providers, we can certainly see why vocational decisions would be limited. Thus, the counselor's first task is to expand horizons, to open up the whole world--not just part of it.

Now to implementation. One can dream of being a chemist--yet only 10 percent of all chemists are women. One can dream of being a dentist--yet only 2 percent of all dentists are women. One can dream of being a certified public accountant -- yet only 2 percent of all certified public accountants are women. One can dream of being a professional of any kind--yet only a small percentage of all professionals are women. The course is clear. The counselor's second task is to help change the context in which women live, so that as dreams expand, so will the possibility of their implementation.

SOME EXAMPLES OF INTERVENTION

The Tiedeman-O-Hara paradigm provides a framework for diagnosis as well as a framework for intervention. The counselor can immediately assess whether a person is trying to anticipate a choice or implement a choice. A woman with a vague feeling of restlessness but not goals might need help in the exploration process. A woman with two or three strong interests might need help in examining these alternatives, weighing them, specifying, and choosing. Women who know what they want but are limited in implementing their choices pose different problems.

Illustrative of the early phase of anticipation are many women who come to see counselors about graduate work. As one woman in this situation talked to a counselor, it became clear that she wanted to be home every time her elementary school children were home. She was implementing her decision to be a mother, as she defined it, and this was the salient aspect of her life. She was, however, fantasizing about different work roles for the future. The counselor clarified this for her, thereby legitimizing the exploration process. The client left relieved and with the intention to continue exploring her own identity and goals.

The Continuum Center at Oakland Unviersity reaches literally hundreds of women in the Michigan area through its Investigation into Identity program. The underlying assumption of the program is that many adult women are confused, ambivalent, and tied up and that focus on the exploratory, anticipatory part of the decision-making process is a first step toward gaining a sense of oneself. The fact that so many women have responded to this program indicates the need women have for clarification and exploration. In fact, this first step is a prelude to the next phase: implementing one's newfound identity.

Illustrative of the implementation phase is the case of a woman who graduated at the top of her class in business administration at a major university. At the time of graduation she had three-year-old twins and a five-year-old girl. She had been a part-time student with no academic problems. After graduation she searched in vain for a part-time job. After a year of looking she became despondent. She was committed and involved as a mother, yet she had identity needs beyond her role as a mother and wife. The counselor in this case helped her aggressively open up options by selling a bank on the idea of experimenting with part-time employment. The counselor further helped her frame a case so that the school of business administration would begin to assume a placement obligation to its women students.

A final example concerns a black high school senior in the anticipation stage. Because of her academic ability, her church awarded her a scholarship to enroll in college. Although her parents and teachers urged her to accept the scholarship, she felt hesitant to take it. The counselor's job was to help the girl uncover her real feelings about college, her fantasies about what she wanted to do with her life. She needed help in crystallizing and then specifying. It turned out that her resistance to college was not based on fear but on the fact that she had her own goals in mind. As a result of clarifying her feelings, she was able to become master of her own destiny. She turned down the scholarship, applied to a business school, and was awarded an Urban League scholarship. The counselor was able to help this girl by understanding the choice process and its ramifications and by not being hell-bent on pushing her to implement something that was not her choice.

THE COUNSELING ROLE: A DELICATE BALANCE

Since many women are limited in their explorations by social impositions, the counselor needs to go beyond the kind of counseling just described. Women, like all groups whose vocational development has been arrested, need special help in stretching, in raising their aspiration level, in raising their consciousness. Consciousness raising does not mean that every woman must aspire to enter "masculine" fields or even to achieve in a career. It means simply that women should be helped to free themselves to dream. The goal is to develop human beings who are free to act in ways that are appropriate to their interests and their values--not their sex. The fact that one is born a woman should not foreordain that she will spend hours every day in the kitchen, in the laundry room, and in low level, "feminine" occupations.

Consciousness raising can help women deal with their roles and needs. Many women, for instance, are fearful of achievement. Gornick (1971, p. 51) summarizes the findings of Horner, whose research has focused on the relationship of motiviation to achievement.

> In this age of lip service to equality and self-realization for all, parents encourage their daughters to fulfill their entire potential...The encouragement, however, is essentially hollow...The contradictory message that the girl gets, from society as well as from her parents, is that if she is too smart, too independent, and above all, too serious about her work, she is unfeminine and will therefore never get married. (Speculation that the full brunt of anxiety over femininity and academic success begins to fall upon a woman student about halfway through college is supported by special studies. For instance, one study revealed that the fear of success in women ranged from a low 47 per cent in a seventh grade junior high school sample to a high 88 per cent in a sample of high ability undergraduate students at a promising Eastern school.)

Counselors must work with men and women to help them achieve humanity. Why should women fear success and men fear failure? Why should men and women negatively correlate achievement and femininity? Why should career and motherhood be seen as mutually exclusive? Why should men feel that it is unmasculine

to arrange birthday parties, do laundry, shop, cook, and clean? A new view of men's and women's roles--of role sharing and role blurring--seems to be the wave of the future.

The counselor who shares this view, however, must be careful not to impose it on every counselee. Counselors need to work with women and men where they are as well as provide opportunities to move them further when they are ready. This is a delicate balance, but one that must be respected.

DEVELOPING GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

Case after case illustrates the usefulness of the decision-making paradigm in counseling. But individual counseling is not enough, and the paradigm also provides a framework for the creation of a total developmental guidance program.

Program development is probably the least articulated aspect of guidance training. It is something we all do, but mostly on an ad hoc basis. Dworkin and Walz (1971, p. 308) write:

> Traditionally decisions affecting guidance programs have not been based on sound evaluation; instead guidance personnel have tended to rely on others to make decisions about programs in guidance, or to use insight, revelation, trial and error, or some other "fly by the seat of your pants" method.

Yet program development is the building of a guidance program that will affect the lives of all those in the sphere of the counselor. Perhaps 5 percent of a class of students seek out a counselor. The effective programmer uses this 5 percent as raw data on which to build a program to reach the 95 percent who do not seek out the counselor. To be effective, the program must reach all of the counselor's constituency, have some activities geared to the exploratory or anticipatory stage of decision making, and include other activities that will give women the skills they need for implementing decisions.

An excellent example of guidance programming can be seen in the expansion of women's counseling bureaus in colleges and universities--from none to over 450 by early 1971 (Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, 1971). The instant success of these bureaus attests to the need many adult women have to explore, crystallize, and specify new choices about themselves. These needs show the importance of systematic programs for reaching large groups. The programs, although similar in their focus--adult women--differ in their emphasis. Some are designed to expand women's horizons, to help women deal with their own identity; others focus on initiating women into the educational-vocational world. The most effective programs, therefore, would be those that develop activities to facilitate both aspects of the decision-making process.

In the first published systematic appraisal of a professionally developed and administered guidance center for women (Raines, 1970), activities deemed appropriate for inclusion in all adult guidance centers included (a) counseling

individuals and groups, (b) appraising each client's potentials, (c) orienting adults in the community through workshops, (d) communicating with the total community through conferences, (e) communicating with other agencies, (f) placing clients in educational and/or training opportunities, (g) getting informational feedback on up-to-date resources, (h) developing outreach programs to contact all segments of the community, (i) building evaluation procedures into programs, and (j) adequately supervising staff. We can see that programs must be multifaceted in order to help people both anticipate and implement--or, to put it another way, help people make effective decisions.

THE COUNSELOR AS CHANGE AGENT

The counselor of women cannot be content just to do career counseling. Despite the increasing number of women in the work force, the situation for women is no better today than it was a decade ago. The decreasing status of women in the labor force, the ever-widening salary gap, the continuation of women in limited female occupations--these facts have been widely documented. The situation calls for activism that goes well beyond career counseling.

The title of Westervelt's (1970) article, "From Evolution to Revolution," reflects my current stance. It becomes increasingly obvious to me how many aspects of American life discriminate against women. If one looks at textbooks that reflect boys as leaders and girls as housewives; if one looks at interest inventories like the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB), in which the manual states that women's primary interest is motherhood; if one studies annuity plans for university personnel that award women less retirement annuity than men--one is struck continually with the need to be vigilant in uncovering areas of discrimination and changing them. Social activism is hard work, but it is essential work if we are to make a world in which everyone can develop according to his or her proclivities, interests, and talents.

As counselors and counselor educators, what is our charge? If we see situations that hinder the development of large segments of our population, do we sit back and ignore them? Do we accept the proposition that intervention in the decision-making process improves the quality of decisions made? If we accept this proposition, we must go one step further. We cannot help individuals make fully human decisions in a context that prohibits implementation. We must therefore work with the system in changing the opportunities so that blacks and whites, men and women, old and young can develop in the vocational spheres of their lives. Women's vocational development has been arrested for complex reasons, some relating to women's own misconceptions and others to political and economic causes. Whatever the reason, I am suggesting that counselors have a pivotal role in changing or intervening in the way things are.

A forerunner of a very promising development is the role of women's advocate at the University of Michigan. The advocate is hired by students, is paid by students, and can be fired by students. The current advocate sees herself as a representative of students who want to change the academic system so that women are not continually discriminated against. The person assuming such a role is in an excellent position to bring about social change, whether the issue concerns insurance policies that use sex as the major variable in determining size of annuity; tenure being awarded to full-time workers only; or admission to a school or job being based on sex.

A pilot program in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare provides another example of social activism. A number of high level, part-time jobs were developed for economists, statisticians, and mathematicians. The success of this project indicated that many high level professional jobs can be performed on a part-time basis (Silverberg and Eyde, 1970). Recently France and Sweden have passed laws enabling men and women to opt for up to 10 years of part-time work without loss of status, seniority, or fringe benefits.

Another example of activism is reflected in the attempts of a small nucleus of women to change guidance materials and instruments. Many counselors have been concerned about the use of inventories like the SVIB and the Kuder Preference Record. Several people mobilized to conduct research and make public the discriminatory aspects of the current SVIB through legal arguments, resolutions to professional associations, and pressures on the publisher (Schlossberg & Goodman, 1972a).

Many counselors might agree with an activist stance but raise questions about what they can actually do to live up to this challenge. The growth of state and university commissions on the status of women, ad hoc women's liberation groups, political action groups like the National Organization for Women, the Women's Equity Action League, and the Women's National Political Caucus provide a base from which one can work as an activist.

For those counselors who are not ready to participate in such mass-based social action programs, another alteranative is available. The Department of Educational Guidance and Counseling at Wayne State University is experimenting with a conference for teachers and counselors. In addition to consciousness raising, each participant must develop a new strategy, a new set of materials, or a new program in his or her school setting. The last day of the conference will take place three months after the main part. At that time each participant, in order to receive credit, must demonstrate or describe his action strategy. Thus the kinds of activism engaged in will depend on the counselors themselves. The conference will provide a springboard and a reward system for all kinds of activist programs.

SYNTHESIS

Figure 1, based on the Tiedeman-O'Hara decision-making paradigm, juxtaposes the two major stages of decision making, anticipation and implementation, against the three major guidance role areas: counseling, programming, and activism. Each counselor or counseling staff would develop activities appropriate for the particular setting. Figure 1 is intended to stimulate counselors to think in a multifaceted way. That is, in order to help clients, counselors must (a) counsel, (b) develop programs to reach those who do not seek counseling, and (c) change society so that women can develop their potentials.

Whether we are concerned with the elementary, secondary, or college level, effective counseling and programming should take the following factors into account:

1. Any grade or age level contains some people at the anticipatory stage and some at the implementation stage.

2. The same individual can be at different stages with respect to different aspects of life.

3. Programs must be multifaceted in order to help individuals simultaneously dream and scheme. Counselors must be flexible; they must sometimes help people clarify and sometimes help people move ahead and implement.

4. Programs must have an activist component. That is, those working with women can see that exploration takes place within a sex-split context and that implementation is often possible only when based on sex-appropriate norms. Who is in a better position than the counselor to change these norms when they do not allow for full development?

We must listen, as did Westervelt (1970, p. 13), to the cries of many women: "So far...a major theme has been one of regret for a potential identity which is now forever lost, of gentle mourning for a self who will never come fully to life."

FIGURE 1

Counselor's Activities

Stage of Decision	Counseling Focus	Guidance Programming	Social Activism
Anticipation Exploration Fantasy Context in which choice emerges Crystallization Patterns emerge in form of alternatives Choice Specification Former doubts dissipate action	Help client clarify, consider alternatives; help client begin to see herself in relation to the world of work.	Provide programs to reach all students in elementary, junior, senior high, college, and adult counseling center programs; utilize role models, curriculum materials, and workshops to stimulate exploration.	Dispel myths about women perpetuated through education and the media. Work to change norms so that work activities are not sex-linked.
Implementation Induction Face to face with reality Reformation Transition Integration Maintenance	Help client implement her choice through placement, internship, and further counseling.	Provide programs at all levels. Build in opportunities for implementation, i.e., developing skill in applying for jobs, passing General Educational Development Tests, obtaining training.	Change opportunity structure for women by, for example, using Eyde's HEW program, enforcing the Civil Rights Act, instituting grievance procedures, revising the SVIB, fighting actuarial base of annuities.

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Text I of Major Presentation

COUNSELING NEEDS OF ADULT SUB GROUPS

by

Mary T. Howard, Ph.D.
Dean of Student Services
Hostos Community College
C. U. N. Y.

An error often made in thinking of counseling special groups is ignoring the total context in which the clients must function. I'm therefore going to remind you of the stage in which all of the men and women are players today.

Two recent headlines and two book titles, I think, can set the tone for this paper. One, in the January 11, 1976, New York Times, reads "Murder Wave of the 70's Appears to Ebb in Cities"; another in the January 5, 1976, issue of Moneysworth reads, "Droves of Singles go on Welfare"; one book title is Highways To Nowhere - The Politics of City Transportation written by Richard Hebert, an investigative reporter; the other book title is The Lonely and Afraid-Counseling the Hard to Reach, by Alice H. Collins. The underlying theme of all of these is that our society has meandered to an atmosphere that encourages a feeling of alienation and anomie. Not only do we die alone, more and more we are living alone. That individuals are uncomfortable with this atmosphere is evidenced by the increasing number of financially successful counselors and psychotherapists and the numerous well-attended group sessions of every persuasion. Sensitivity to the general social and cultural atmosphere can aid in understanding the reactions of various subgroups encountered in counseling sessions.

On the question of crime, during the affluent 1960's crimes against person were relatively common. This was an activist era with feelings running high, people taking strong positions and the evolving of distinctly different life styles. This era was the incubator and nourisher of the civil rights movement that led to voting rights for the 18 year olds and the relative emancipation of the ideas of this age group from the ideas of their elders. Buttons saying 'never trust anyone over 30' were as popular as those saying 'Love' and 'I'm a flower child.' All of the women's groups gained impetus then and equal rights amendments for them were prepared for legislative action. Blacks who provided the civil rights spark were studied. Their entry into some policy making positions in colleges, government and industry were noted and touted. Gay groups discarded their covers and lesbian wives left their husbands. Mexicans chanted La Raza and Orientals demanded departments of study as had the Blacks. Less biased books about American Indians entered the market. Communes left the province of the flower children and began to gain acceptance among the middle income and well-educated populace.

The 1960's was also the era when the homicide rate in the 12 largest cities was esculating. Detroit, where murder increased by 341% from 1965-1974, became known as Murder City, U. S. A. Speculative reasons offered for the phenomena include: narcotics addiction, the climate of violence promulgated by television, non-conviction and the release of repeater criminals, migrations from rural to urban settings, the mass availability of weapons and urban crowding.

Now, with the homicide rate decreasing the fear of crimes against property are perceived as preeminent. The wealthy have traditionally had guards. But more and more the middle and lower income persons are concerned about property protection. Guards are working for block associations, tenant groups and businesses. In New York City alone there are some 100,000 private security guards, more than there are tax-supported policemen. The security lock and alarm systems companies are doing a landslide business in securing private homes. As in many foreign countries, people in the United States will only leave their homes for extended periods if they can find a house sitter. And many housekeepers and baby sitters who used to be willing to stay on the job overnight insist on going home to protect their belongings. This trend to distrust and fear will probably not abate in the near future and definitely affects attitudes of all people towards each other.

By 1974 the homicide rate ranged from 18 per 100,000 population in Los Angeles to 55 per 100,000 in Atlanta, Georgia. Between 1974 and 1975, there has been a decline of 4% with Detroit showing a decline of 17.8%.

Most murders are committed by persons in their teens or early 20's and half to two-thirds of all homicides occur in the course of arguments or fights between relatives or acquaintances.

According to year end figures of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) published in Moneysworth, almost 3/4 of the people on General Assistance Welfare are single people. The recipient is typically a single male, unemployed and usually unskilled. Many of these are recent high school graduates. While the national unemployment figure is 8.6%, 14.9% of single men and 12.8% of single women are out of work. In some instances the job hunter is a college graduate.

Important in the attitudes of many out of work young individuals is a negative attitutde toward government. The feeling is that given the kind of government extant they'll take anything they can get. One person, a 37-year-old with two college degrees says he does not believe in work, he believes in the no-work ethic. He has lived on federal funds for nine years. Federally funded financial aid programs for college students are now endangered because of the number of defaults with some students purposely declaring bankruptcy to avoid paying.

If the larger proportion of individuals on welfare are singles, very possibly a sizeable portion of those seeking employment assistance are also. If the attitudes of the applicants are typified by the 37-year-old mentioned, it is highly likely that rapport between the working counselor and the unemployed is severely limited because of distinct value differences.

Richard Hebert did a careful study of the effect of highway development on five cities heavily influenced by the automobile. In his book he makes the following observations about Indianapolis. He notes that with the building of the Indianapolis beltway 1-465, the considerable white affluent of that city moved outside of the beltway, leaving inside the Black and poor. "Two-thirds of the black population of Marion County in 1970 were confined to only 27 of the city's 180 census tracts, almost entirely segregated into the northern third of Center Township within the old city limits. Each of those 27 tracts numbered more than 75 percent of its population black, many of them well above 90 percent black. When matched against a map of this sort of racial distribution, most

of the acreage in the city used for industrial jobs are found across town from the concentrated black residential areas. Partly as a result of poor transportation to these work sites, unemployment has soared in the inner city. In the seven antipoverty target areas mapped in Indianapolis, the unemployment during June 1970 was at 9.5 percent, compared to the 3.5 percent "recession" unemployment rate throughout the region."[1]

Finally, the title alone of the book, The Lonely and Afraid tells its own story. Chapters in the book refer to delinquent youth, socially deprived girls, the Negro family composition, angry people and marginally adjusted families. In one chapter the author notes the corrollaries between low income white and low income black families. Characteristics include high incidence of broken homes, mother dominance, births out of wedlock, educational deficits, crowded living, 3-generation households, and failure to observe middle class norms of behavior. (p. 164.)[2]

The emphasis on early conditions in the home is emphasized because it offers suggestions for the attitudes encountered in the adults.

The phenomena of the 'lonely and afraid' is more prevalent in today's society than we might be aware. In a book edited by Martha Farmer in 1972,[3] the increasing number of participants in encounter groups, marital marathon and training groups was noted in support of the public demand for opportunities to develop relationships in the absence of the extended families.

Individuals, poor, black, women, as well as the typical average person are seeking ways of combatting the distancing phenomena that the current culture has imposed.

While much has been written about the special counseling needs of some distinct groups, there is a limited amount of substantial research available on the effectiveness of varying modes of counseling. I will comment on some that are available on five kinds that are often in counseling caseloads. Two of these are usually invisible groups; the members of the other three groups you recognize as they enter your office. As I discuss the information that is available, please consider the suggested needs within the context of the background atmosphere I have just mentioned. All of the individuals function within that context as well as within the special conditions imposed by their membership in a particular subgroup of our culture.

1. Hebert, Richard, Highways To Nowhere - The Politics of City Transportation, Bobbs Merrill Co. Inc., Indianapolis, Ind., 1972.

2. Collins, Alice H., The Lonely & Afraid - Counseling The Hard To Reach, Odyssey Press, N. Y., 1969.

3. Howard, Mary T., "Psychological Counseling", in Counseling Services for Adults, Martha Farmer, ed., The Scarecrow Press, Inc., Metuchen, N. J., 1971.

The Homosexual

One group generally ignored by society represents an estimated four to ten percent of our society. At least 37% of the adult males of the United States have had homosexual experiences. As of December, 1975, 16 states had repealed their sodomy laws, 26 cities have pro-gay rights legislation in their city councils, two professional unions have negotiated non-discriminatory protection for their sexual minority members and 10 cities do not discriminate against gays in their hiring practices. Yet as Richard Marquart noted in APGA's Guidepost (12/5/75) the counseling professions have offered little solace to this sub-group of adults. Early Greek society welcomed the charms of its male and female homosexuals and lauded the poetry of Sapphos. In some societies 100% of the males engaged in homosexual as well as heterosexual alliances. Yet our advanced civilization psychologically lynched the bemedaled soldier who announced his sexual proclivities last year. Some women's rights organizations are splintering because the non-lesbians find the public emergence of its lesbian members uncomfortable. Yet recent research indicates that gays who announce themselves to at least some important others are adjusted psychologically healthier than those who do not do so.

At a meeting of therapists, one learned member stated that in his 30 years of practice every homosexual he had seen was neurotic and disturbed. An astute audience participant rejoined that in his 30 years of practice every heterosexual person he had seen was neurotic. Unfortunately, even today the pronouncement of the first speaker still represents the prevailing attitude. Regardless of performance, even such as demonstrated by the soldier, gays are seen as mentally unhealthy.

In a satirical article published in the American Psychologist, Maier[4] indicated that: 1) if one has a theory against where there are facts, one disposes of the facts; 2) one can always find some evidence to support any theory; and 3) given a list of facts one can always find a theory to support it. In 1935 the august person of Sigmund Freud wrote a mother about her son as follows:[5]

"Dear Mrs. _____

I gather from your letter that your son is a homosexual...Homosexuality is assuredly no advantage, but it is nothing to be ashamed of, no vice, no degradation, it cannot be classified as an illness; we consider it to be a variation of the sexual function produced by a certain arrest of sexual development...

By asking me if I can help, you mean, I suppose, if I can abolish homosexuality and make normal heterosexuality takes its place. The answer is, in a

4. Maier, N.R.F., "Maier's Law", American Psychologist, 15, 1960, pp. 208-212.

5. Bieber, Irving, et al,, Homosexuality, Vintage Books of Random House, New York, 1965.

general way, we cannot promise to achieve it. In a certain number of cases we succeed in developing the blighted germs of heterosexual tendencies which are present in every homosexual, in the majority of cases it is no more possible. It is a question of the quality and the age of the individual. The result of treatment cannot be predicted.

What analysis can do for your son runs in a different line. If he is unhappy, neurotic, torn by conflicts, inhibited in his social life, analysis may bring him harmony, peace of mind, full efficiency, whether he remains a homosexual or gets changed.....

Sincerely yours with kind wishes,

Freud"

Yet in 1965 a group of respected psychoanalysts in a detailed published study stated that, "We consider homosexuality to be a pathologic biosocial, psychosexual adaptation consequent to pervasive fears surrounding the expression of heterosexual impulses. In our view, every homosexual is in reality, a "latent" heterosexual ...(p.220).[6] No wonder that among their homosexual sample of 106 males these 77 psychoanalysts who completed questionnaires on their patients found 90% who did not wish their homosexuality exposed to the public.

The attitudes of this sample of patients toward treatment was determined to be as follows: (p.29)

Question	N=106
Reason for treatment	
Named a sexual problem	51
Other than sexual problem	52
Is patient eager to conceal homosexuality? Yes	90
Is patient concerned about exposure? Yes	96
Patterns of Sexual behavior	
Exclusively homosexual	72
Bisexual	30
Inactive currently	4
Married	8
Does patient want homosexuality "cured"	
Yes	64
No	32
No answer	10

6. Ibid.

Further, in their comparative diagnosis of homosexual vs heterosexual patients, the psychoanalysts attributed character disorder to the larger number of homosexuals.

Percentage distribution of diagnosis

Diagnosis	Homosexuals (N=106)	Heterosexuals (N=100)
Schizophrenia	27	18
Psychoneurosis	29	42
Character Disorder	42	36
Manic-Depressive	0	2
Other	2	2

What are gays like? There is a dearth of research using a mentally healthy hypothesis base. I will give brief descriptions of 3 individuals--atypical for the general society in income and education, but suggestive of certain commonalities postulated by some therapists.

A-White woman, aged 38, attractive divorcee with 2 daughters aged 12 and 14. Interested in music, painting, sports and travel. Mother a nervous intellectually constricted person who dominated her husband with her malaises. A is currently living with another professional both working and economically quite solvent. A is estranged from widowed mother after informing mother and daughters of sexual preferences. Daughters now live with homosexual pair.

B-White male, aged 40, college professor with doctorate viewed by graduate school professors as "immature". Never married. Intensely interested in music. Main family contacts are with 3 generations of females.

C-Black female scientist with college degree who has resigned professional positions to take unskilled labor jobs. Divorcee with one daughter. Attractive challenge to men with whom she acts very embarrassed, shy and competitive. Aged 35. Long term alliance with lesbian, bisexual person her mother's age. Generic family aloof though not estranged. Currently a non-commissioned officer in the military by her own choice. Teenage daughter lives between C's generic family and C.

Bieber claims that characteristics of homosexuals are dominant, over-protective and often seductive mothers with passive, aloof or absent fathers. Of course the pattern of schizophrenic patient's families are often the same and there are no comparative statistics for families of normally functioning heterosexual individuals.

That the gay person experiences significant social and personal conflict is highly probable. That gays are necessarily sick people and necessarily strive for a heterosexual adjustment is not highly probable. Society's attitudes, including the attitudes of counselors, do make life difficult for them and

encourage "passing" as straight as a way of avoiding confrontation and maintaining economic solvency. Evidence indicates that probably 10% of our society and therefore 10% of your counseling cases are gay. How accepting are counselors of this diviancy from the average? How empathic are counselors to the fears of discovery, the need to obtain and maintain a job in a world of straights, the conflict between the wish to be honest as a person and the expectation of personal and emotional punishment for that honesty? The stereotypes, clandestine jokes and casual remarks can be as devastating to a gay as to an ethnic member or to a woman.

Perhaps the main counseling techniques necessary here are to be accepting of the person's comfort with homosexuality, to offer behavioral suggestions if the individual fears discovery on the job because of mannerisms and to provide ego support for such achievement needs as the person may have. The second counseling tenet particularly applicable here is that the counselor may have difficulty handling his or her own discomfort if such a client offers friendship or is seductive. Then the counselor has to be particularly sensitive to the source within him or herself of anxieties or anger experienced during the counseling contact.

The Black Client

A Visible larger proportion of a counselor's contacts are Black. Most of the research data on counseling with Blacks is with college students.

Beasley and Sease[7] did a statistical evaluation (step wise regression and multiple correlation) on first semester and cummulative grade point average with non-intellective items of the ACT, the SPS biography data for 86 male and 90 female Black students at the University of Colorado.

Results:

1. The ACT composite score does predict academic achievement well for Black students (R=.522). Addition of the ACT English score raised the multiple correlation to .561. By addition of 11 other variables from SPS an R=.681 was achieved.

   The 14 items used in computing the multiple correlations may be grouped as follows:

   factors for choosing a particular school; patterns of expected extra-curricular activities in college; high school accomplishments; and activities in music, speech, art, writing or science while in high school.

7. Beasley, Steward R., Jr. & Sease, William A.; "Using Biographical Data as a Predictor of Academic Success for Black University Students.", Journal of College Student Personnel, May, 1974, (pp. 201-206).

Notably certain items correlated negatively:

Information given by high school teachers influenced choice of college
Intention to work for campus newspaper, yearbook, etc., while in college
Appointed to a student office
Organized a school political group or campaign
Participated in non-school "politics"
Elected to one or more student offices.

Positively correlated factors were:

High scholastic standards influenced the choice of college
Worked regularly for pay while in high school
Obtained one or more jobs with help of parents or friends
To be successful in college; need considerable help in improving:

reading skills
study skills
ability to express ideas
more responses to athletic section of SPS
more responses in leadership section of SPS

That biographical items may be predictive had been previously supported by speculation and research begun in 1969 by Sedlacek, Brooks and Mindus at the University of Maryland; and by Pruitt (Case Western Reserve in Cleveland). Their work included information that new black freshmen enrollment rose from 3% in 1969 to 4% in 1970 where it held through 1971. These authors argued that factors of self-concept, educational expectations, adaptability to the institution, motivation, availability of social and emotional support from family and peers, pre-college educational experiences, experience with goal oriented activities, amount of remedial resources available at the college, and the personal maturity and leadership potentials of the student were all affective. The Beasley and Sease findings are not contradictory.

Several segments from an article by Higgins and Warner[8] as well as the findings from their literature search deserve particular note.

1. The authors find a severe paucity of research articles in general referring to any of the ethnic groups.

2. Most of the articles even concerned with Blacks where most attention has been focused, are limited to position papers and personal data bases.

The authors' review was reasonably exhaustive and included ERIC, volumes of ten relevant journals, and particular abstracts. The themes the authors found in their search were:

8. Higgins, Earl B., & Warner, Richard W., Jr.; "Counseling Blacks", Personnel and Guidance Journal, 53, 5, January, 1975.

1. Counselors need to understand the culture of their clients. Vontress was an early (1969) exponant of this position. Two studies in this area found:

   a. Counselors felt less need to be verbal with black clients and more to be action oriented. No communication problems were attributable to a client's lack of middle class values.

   b. Linguistic compatibility is low between counselors and clients of different ethnic groups.

2. Racial differences of client and counselor:

   a. Two studies support the use and productivity of intra-racial client/counselor mix for initial counseling interviews.

   b. One study reported that disadvantaged black university students preferred black counselors.

   c. One study noted that black high school students reported mixed emotions on the matter of an ethnic preference in counselors.

   d. One study found no significant differences in counseling effectiveness attributable to ethnicity.

3. Need for empathy:

   When inexperienced black counselors and experienced white counselors were compared on reports of black students' desire to return to the counselor, the significant factors were counselor's empathy, positive regard and genuineness. No results were given when experienced black counselors were compared with experienced white counselors.

   > "...despite dissimilarities between client and counselor, high empathy counselors are more effective than low empathy counselors." (The authors are black).

4. Appropriate approaches for counseling blacks:

   a. A general consensus was found favoring action oriented approaches. Their findings support the position of the 1958 early Redlech publication, Social Class and Mental Illness: A Community Study, (Wiley & Co.) The action approaches are most effective when they are task oriented.

b. Harper, Fred (a black educator) and Stone (1974), suggest rational emotive therapy or reality therapy as the therapy of choice. (For theoretical reasons I object. This approach continues the authoritarian approach to which minorities have been subjected by the culture).

c. Morgan (1971) reports culturally disadvantaged, underachieving youth exposed to behavior therapy counseling showed significant improvement in grade point average, study habits, attitudes and self-esteem.

d. Workman (1974) found the behavioral approach superior to the humanistic approach in helping clients achieve the goal of increased production in a sheltered workshop situation.

e. Two other studies found action/control type counseling delivered more client responses, affect referents, receptivity, satisfactory solutions to identified problems and a rating of the counselor as more helpful than those not using this type of counseling.

5. Group Counseling:

a. Four studies from 1961 to 1972 found positive group counseling effect. When studied under controlled conditions, the various results for high school and college black youth were a reduction of the number of problems pre-post; the group experience improved scholastic achievement and coping behavior; and positive changes in self-concept and peer acceptance.

b. The above results do not differ from those found for white clients in similar group experiences.

From the review of research studies of counseling with black clients noted above, the authors Higgins and Warner make the following recommendations cautiously:

1. Empathy is of prime importance, particularly in the initial interview, and can circumvent any barriers created by racial differences.

2. The greater efficiency of a black counselor with a black client seems to be a function of the counselor's understanding of the culture and language and of his/her commitment to the client. The training of counselors should include instruction from community persons from the client's or a similar area.

3. Though action oriented counseling seems more effective than traditional approaches with black clients, it must be remembered that just as whites, all blacks are not the same.

4. In group counseling the process should be to establish an empathic relationship and then proceed to appropriate action (See Gayda Group Counseling: A Developmental Approach. Boston, Allyn and Bacon 1971)

5. Intensive attention to the basic principles of counseling; that is empathic understanding, knowledge of language and culture of the client and respect for client are especially necessary in counseling with minorities.

One other recent literature review offers some interesting information. Harrison[9] reviewed studies ranging from ratings of counselor and of client to the use of galvanic skin responses to determine client reactions. His conclusions are slightly dissimilar to those of Higgins and Warner. Specifically Harrison arrived at the following conclusions:

1. Counselees tend to prefer counselors of the same race particularly if they are black counselors. One pertinent study by Tucker (1969) reviewing experience, ethnicity and sex concluded that counselees viewed experienced counselors more positively regardless of race or sex.

2. Some clients preferred counselors of the same sex and race as themselves. First and second choice of each set of counselees was as follows:

Sex and Race of Counselee	Counselor Preferred 1st and 2nd Choice
1. Black females	1. Black males 2. Black females
2. Black males	1. Black males 2. White males
3. White females	1. White males 2. White females
4. White males	1. White males 2. White females

For black clients with black counselors, there occurred more verbalization and more depth of client's exploratory behavior, than for black clients with white counselors.

3. The race of clients may affect the counselor's facilitative behavior.

4. Client identification with counselor is facilitated if both are of the same race.

5. Role expectations of the culture such as gaming assumed expected of blacks by the white culture may retard disclosure behavior of blacks with white counselors.

9. Harrison, Don K., "Race as a Counselor-Client Variable in Counseling and Psychotherapy: A Review of the Research", The Counseling Psychologist, Vol. 5, No. 1, 1975.

Women:

There are other discernable groups within our current college student population. More women than blacks have taken advantage of legal decisions engendered by the civil rights act. While their ground swell was underground and overshadowed by the vocal concerns of Blacks from 1954 to the 70's, women are now a distinctly vocal group about their rights and identifiable as one of the diverse student groups. The literature on women is proliferate. Again, much of it is in the form of position papers and books. Some pertinent research has emerged, however, and Oliver[10] pinpoints the areas most pertinent for counselors.

I. Counselor Bias

Both male and female counselors tend to vary counseling behavior and attitudes on the basis of sex, particularly if the female client:

1) wishes to enter a non-traditional field;

2) exhibits traits considered more appropriate for a healthy adult male;

3) preferred the directive counseling approach. Male counselors tend to be non-directive with female clients.

Further, career information given by counselors and materials used tend to reflect the sex role stereotypes (the Strong Campbell Interest Inventory of 1973; and Crites Career Maturity Materials of 1973 are some of the better materials in this area.)

II. Demographic Changes

1. The age of marriage is increasing.

2. The number of children is decreasing. The healthier women with strong positive self-concepts prefer smaller families. Women with the opposite set of characteristics prefer more children. On this same topic Wilson[11] notes that between 1967 and 1971 percentage of wives aged 18-24 planning 2 or fewer children went from 44% to 64%.

3. The number of women, younger than 30 years of age who are in higher education is increasing.

4. The number of married women who are in the labor force is increasing in number. In 1973, they represented 42.2% of the labor force including many under age 35 with pre-school children.

10. Oliver, Laurel W., "Counseling Implications of Recent Research on Women", Personnel and Guidance Journal, 53, 6, February,1975, pp. 430-437.

11. Wilson, Kenneth M., "Today's Women Students, New Outlooks and New Challenges", Journal College Student Personnel, September, 1975, pp. 376-381.

III. Achievement and achievement motivation[12]

The evidence suggests that this is cyclical in women. Achievement need is high in early school years. Then need affiliation becomes prominent. Need achievement becomes dominant again 10-15 years after marriage. Interestingly, Wilson[13] notes that in 1970, 59% of college student men and 37% women thought women's activities were best confined to the home and family. By 1973 only 41% men and 19% freshmen women so thought.

This finding suggests that Horner's fear of success hypothesis in relationship to the life stages of women should be given attention in counseling situations with women.

IV. New futures[14]

Women who view themselves in non-traditional ways are psychologically healthier. More attention should be given to such thinking then.

Since, however, many more women now than in the decade of the sixties are considering marriage/career combinations, problems of dual role responsibilities and interactions require counseling attention for both men and women.

In "Counseling Women: A Review of the Research", McEwen offers some additional conslusions:[15]

1. Counselors' perceptions.

   a. Counselors more often rate males as having vocational educational problems and while females are more often rated as having emotional-social problems.

   b. Women counselors described their ideal woman as more extra-family oriented than the ideal projected by male counselors were more accepting of working mothers.

2. Career Development of Women

   a. Role conflict occurred for women in higher education or careers.

   b. Female role models significantly affect occupational aspiration levels of freshman college women.

   c. College women generally feel low expectations for themselves and are sensitive to differential treatment of sexes in academia.

11. Wilson, Kenneth M., "Today's Women Students, New Outlooks and New Challenges", Journal College Student Personnel, September, 1975, pp. 376-381.
12. Oliver, biid.
13. Wilson, ibid.
14. Oliver, ibid.
15. McEwen, Marylee K., "Counseling Women: A Review of the Research", Journal of College Student Personnel, September, 1975, p. 382-387.

3. Sex bias in counseling

   a. Both male and female counselors discourage women from "male" occupations.

   b. High school counselors regardless of sex, rated female clients with non-traditional career goals as more in need of counseling than those female clients with traditional career goals.

   c. Married male counselors have negative attitudes about the ability of married professional women's ability to adequately fulfill both home and work roles.

Thus:

Both male and female counselors exhibit sex bias in mental health standards, perception of client concerns and vocation occupational expectations.

The Puerto Rican:

What about counseling of the Puerto Rican. Congruent with the findings of Higgins and Warner in their research on blacks, though there is speculative material, a cursory search of the literature provided only discussion articles on counseling with Puerto Ricans. Information from my personal data base including experience and reading does not disagree with that published by Edward W. Christiansen.[16]

Earlier I noted that understanding of both the culture and language are important in establishing a relationship with a client. Some pertinent characteristics of the Puerto Rican whom counselors may expect to contact, follow. Of course, one must be careful to be alert to individuality and not to overgeneralize.

1. Knowledge of the Spanish language should not pre-suppose immersion in the Puerto Rican culture. To be very simplistic, a Dominican is not a Venezuelan, is not a Cuban: nor is a third generation affluent white mainland Puerto Rican, a newly immigrant black "islander". Yes, there is both economic and color prejudice in Puerto Rico though we don't discuss it. There is also a distinct difference in attitude toward nationalism between the island and the mainland Puerto Rican.

2. More generally there is a strong respect for individualism and personal ruggedness; so males find counseling something of an assault on their egos. In general also, the women are not near the women's liberation movement in thinking and attitudes or in male-female relationships and responsibilities.

16. Chistiansen, Edward W., "Counseling Puerto Ricans: Some Cultural Considerations:, Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 53, No. 5, January 19, 1975.

Family, in some very distinctive and in some ways short-term senses, a feeling of family overrides all; that is family pride, extension of emotional support, and protection from outsiders.

Implications for counseling are similar to those mentioned for counseling with blacks.

1. The client must be respected. The Puerto Rican male, however, will deomonstrate little patience with verbalizations and may well adriotly hide a very troublesome problem because of machismo and pride.

2. Encouragement of women to act independent of husband and/or family is liable to be highly unsuccessful.

3. Avoidance of political arguments, rational or otherwise regarding nationalization of Puerto Rico is desirable in a counseling situation.

4. Impatience with the sometimes stuttering attendance records of Puerto Rican women students required by the woman's self-expectation in relation to family responsibilities may well face a blank wall.

5. In counseling you may well find the individual session a family session since the problem and concerns of an individual are considered those of the family as well.

6. Though a Puerto Rican may have been educated on the United States mainland, his achievement need may well have been neatly dampened by negative reactions of elementary and high school teachers.

In many instances, then, much counseling effort may have to be expended to help the clients overcome the negative historiacl effects on their self concept and academic achievement orientation.

Inmates

The final group to be mentioned is composed of really newcomers to our campuses. At my college they are called the Green Haven Group; at the University of Minnesota, the Newgate Group; at Marquette University and Federal City College and other places, other names are used. Collectively, they are the incarcerated or recently paroled members of society who have become college students by ingenuity, luck, social crisis and some financial good sense. In Minnesota, incarceration costs $26.00 per day; maintenance at a half-way house with all college expenses paid and pocket money totals only $21.70 a day. Considering the low recidivism rate of the latter group and the taxes they eventually pay, the Study Release Programs are economic bargains.

The students belong to all racial groups - at Minnesota they are primarily white, at Federal City College they are primarily Black, at Hostos Community College, they are primarily Puerto Rican. They share counseling needs with the

general population, with their ethnic group, and with their socio-economic group, but additionally have some specific characteristics. Currently, they represent only a small portion of the college population, but they are growing, both because of their own academic success and thereby, acceptance, and because legal assaults are being made on the tremendous restrictions on their civil rights both during and after incarceration and release. These civil restrictions include ineligibility for licensing in most health fields, banks won't employ them if crime is against property, etc.

The University programs for the incarcerated to which I refer began variously in 1969 to 1973. They range in current size from 20 to 600 students and represent from less than 1/10 of 1% of a campus population up to 10%. On two of the four campuses, they have captured major student government elected offices by astute organization and campaigning and with the student body quite aware of their background.

The following is a brief summary description of their characteristics:

1. Often the males represent the brightest, most creative, very idealistic and least patient of an ethnic group.

2. They have a sensitive negative self concept.

3. They have a strong, though covert respect for authority.

4. They need extensive training in decision-making and realistic goal-setting.

5. Their focus of control orientation appears to be external.

6. They have difficulty relating maturely to authority figures.

The material of my presentation was gleaned from personal experience, research studies and observations offered by others. All subgroup members mentioned are subject to the general human condition as well as to the environments peculiar to their roles and status. You will thus have noticed much support for the over-all application of good traditional counseling techniques of focused attentioned empathic listening, understanding exploration and problem resolution skills. The main message of this paper, however, is that a counselor must be familiar with the special stresses and perceptions of a client generated by special backgrounds of that client. The counselor must continue then to educate themselves about the characteristics and environments most common to any significant portion of their counseling clientele.

Time constraints mean that the information offered here represents only the very tip of an enormous iceberg, and some additional baseline data upon which each counselor can continue to build the fund of information pertinent to their own work.

Text II of Major Presentation

CONTINUOUS CAREER DECISIONS

by

Mary T. Howard, Ph.D.
Dean of Student Services
Hostos Community College
C. U. N. Y.

The theologian, Martin Buber, said: "I am what I do." This postulate is echoed over and over in our daily language and actions. 'Beauty is as beauty does' and the opening cocktail gambit of "and what do you do?" meaning "who are you?" are common examples of the western world work ethic in action. The least influential employee spends one-third of his week identified as the dishwasher, the housekeeper, or the stock boy; while the most influential employees spend more than half of their week as president, dean, or supervisor.

The humanist movement visibly practiced by the flower children of the 1950's was a class rebellion against this identity by work. The peculiarity of cycles, however, as exemplified by the current state of the economy, is again forcefully pressuring attention to the work ethic and away from Whitman's Celebration of Self Ideal. In actuality, of course, the western picture of respectability has always been neatly colored by the "what do you do" question.

Nonetheless, the identity rebellion of the 1950's has left its mark. Efforts to make "who am I?" more congruent with "what I do" are reflected now in the changes that have occurred in the whole individual counseling and training group patterns. Emphasis in counseling is now less on personal and therapeutic counseling and more on career decision counseling; instead of personal growth groups, we now more often hear of groups on use of power, decision-making, career options, sexual identity and management style. These represent efforts to humanize the work ethic. The benefits of knowledge of self, communication and interactive effects are being applied to concepts of the market place.

Concurrently, the practical elements of career effects on personal identity development, satisfaction and planning are being recognized. Yet, little has been done to develop models that allow people to actually implement new concepts of self in the activity in which most of us engage, that is work, and that uses up one-third or more of our lives.

Humans have invented and produced in the last 50 years as much as was invented and produced in all of the thousands of years of man's history prior to 1900. This, and the fact that the vast majority of these inventions are in current use by the American Western citizen attests to man's curiosity, flexibility, inventiveness, and capability.

There are still a few people whose first mode of transportation was a horse and buggy and who now drive cars and fly planes; who once used a scrubbing board and now drop clothes in automatic washers and dryers; who can recite the multiplication tables but carry a pocket electronic calcular. People do readily adapt to a myriad of new conveniences. The tendency is, however, to fit them into existing patterns of behavior rather than to consider them as opportunities for developing whole new such patterns. For example, development of skills in computer usage could lead to a whole new career rather than just making an old one more manageable.

The need for change in employment skills is documented in our society in a number of different ways. The agribusiness expert is in high demand, social science and English teachers are in oversupply, and specific types of engineers are needed. In terms of completely new career groups facilitators, as opposed to group psychotherapists, were unrecognized two decades ago and all community oriented professions from technician to planner are only a decade old. In the area of machine development, speed of change is demonstrated by the fact that data processing and copy equipment is better leased than bought because models and their concommitant technical requirements change almost daily; and in the area of procedures and techniques, business practices and medical procedures are old before the freshman student becomes a senior.

Our society expects its employees to grow with, and perhaps even out of their jobs. If an employee doesn't, he or she begins to be referred to as: "Poor old Joe,...or Josephine---good worker but just can't seem to get ahead, you know. May even have to let him/her go because: 1) the job has out-grown him/her; or 2) need new blood in that spot to make some improvements." And unless astute at reading signs and making other preparations, old Joe, or Josephine, finds himself/herself bewilderedly in the unemployment office after years of "faithful service." Our society has implicit growth expectations of its population and assumes inevitable decline. At no point, however, and in spite of Alvin Toffler's book, FUTURE SHOCK, and other titles suggesting that Future Shock is now, has society considered systematically the desirability of its working force being prepared for and regularly shifting its individual and collective careers in line with the constantly and increasingly rapidly shifting of its economic and production needs.

Three quasi-institutionalized societal responses to varying personal vocational needs and to the time variable of economic needs do exist. Their selective application and inadequacy of coverage for the total population is inherent in their design.

Educational:

1. Manpower forecasts at the mercy of popular fads, trade cartels, warlkike "hot spots," and raw resources availability, announce the need for more or less of this or that expertise, and colleges respond by:

    a. decreasing the budgets of teachers' colleges
    b. advertising for law school students
    c. beefing up engineering faculties
    d. developing new curricula in agriculture and business or for mental health aides or community workers.

Military:

2. All U.S. military services: a) permit retirement of its personnel with pay after 20 years service; and b) adjust service conditions to permit some of its personnel to earn civilian degrees while they are still in service.

Employees:

3. Some public school systems permit teachers to retire after 20-30 years, and government civil service jobs provide similar options.

These short range societal responses to immediate needs, without thought for long range consequences, are quite expensive for the individual personally subject to their effects. Two distinct groups are directly affected by educational institutions' decisions.

Society heavy-handedly influences the career choice of those in their late teens and early twenties by manipulating the availability of certain majors in colleges and direct financial aid to students. This same population may find itself, as is now true in 1976, enticed into technical and vocational schools by the same maneuvers and into certain trades in those schools. The life long careers of most of this population are set at that age and by educational decisions in response to the remote self interest of big business, bureaucracy and wars.

Another group under societally-manuevered conditions finds itself in even less desirable circumstances. These are the severely economically deprived, whether Appalacian white, backwoods Minnesotan, Upstate New York rual American Indian, Puerto Rican or Black. Well paying jobs were closed to their usually unskilled parents. The progeny of this group dropped out of school to earn money necessary to family maintenance on Maslow's first and second need level, in gas stations, restaurants, private houses, in construction and on assembly lines; and found themselves stuck by financial responsibilities and lack of skills.

Lars E. Bjork[1] describes assembly line worker reaction in Sweden as boredom reflected in high labor turnover and absenteeism, poor workmanship and even sabotage. This is congruent with the American experience. Swedish government response has been to look at new ways of organizing work, and the delegation of power and influence to the worker. The majority of some 14,000 non-white prison inmates in New York, fit these categories. Impatient, unhappy and frustrated, they tried for a quick dollar, exhibited their wrath, or ran with the "wrong crowd" at a police sweep time.

For those who happen into the military and make it their first career, there is often a convenient second chance to make a new career choice at approximately age 40. Veteran's benefits pay for up to 36 months of education; and retirement pay supports the person and family while the retiree makes a mature plunge into a new career. The military pattern thus has some career advantages.

1. "An Experiment in Work Satisfaction", Scientific American, 3/75, Vol. 232 No. 3.

Teachers who retire at age 40 or 50 have a more difficult time. While their pensions are assured they can rarely begin to receive the pension until age 62, and thus must shuffle quickly to gain a new employment status. At least that new employment need not be based on pension benefits, but in very little else is the early retired teacher in more comfortable circumstances than is the average citizen. The situation of the Civil Service employee is similar to that of the teacher. In each instance, the choice of a second career must be made under forced conditions.

A few lucky citizens have personal financial resources or sufficient personal stamina and vigor to decide upon change in personal and vocational life type and manage change with little or no assured support. These are mostly respected persons in status professions. Examples include that of private medical practitioners moving into health centers with a community outreach perspective;[1] a janitor attending night school for years and becoming a research chemist at Betty Crocker;[2] a dentist who becomes a minister;[3] a minister who becomes a counseling psychologist;[4] Catholic sisters who become non-frocked college presidents. These are all examples of the determined risk taking individuals who kicked the lock-step traces of an earlier chosen or chosen for profession. These are others who by virtue of a physical trauma or emotional crisis are forced by circumstances to make changes. Such examples include the graduate civil engineer accidentally paralyzed from the neck down who was retrained by the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation into a computer programmer;[5] another, a draftsman retrained as a blueprint inspector;[6] a polio induced triplegic housewife cast off by her husband as a basket case who held a job a year later as an assistant dean of students;[7] an eighth grade graduate alcoholic Salvation Army drifter discovered by rehabilitation counselors to have a usable I.Q. of 140 who, with emotional support and encouragement, obtained a grade 11 Civil Service managerial position;[8] and an ex-drug addict being retrained in office skills who wrote hopefully:

> I'm not what I wanna be
> I'm not what I oughta be
> I'm not what I'm gonna be
> But thank God, I'm not what I was.[9]

But, all of the above are happenstance and certainly not representative of what happens to most of us.

Reference to Alvin Toffler's Eco-Systems emphasizes that society can no longer afford to let random happenings determine the selection of either first or career choices.

In view of the fact that: 1) many make their initial career choice on the basis of chance, parent preference, financial pressures or other exigencies peripheral to preferred career choice; 2) an increasing number of men admit to boredom with a resulting decreased efficiency in their original career; 3) women in their late 30's are eyeing the job market out of family financial necessity, personal identity needs, or self achievement desires; 4) future shock is present and existing jobs are phasing out or being so modified as to have been effectively deleted while new job titles, categories and career families are emerging yearly; Society must design a systematic structure that provides both moral sanction and

1. (WICHE Community Mental Health Services 2/75).
2-7 Personal contacts
8. Personal contacts
9. Anthony Brown

financial support for all citizens to make regularized career changes with some reasonable, logical pattern. The random factors permitting some by chance to meet future shock with equanimity, while the majority are being ground in the gears of inevitable changes, seems markedly unfair. 'To those who have it has been given' and 'the race goes to the swiftest' is supporting an elitest concept inimical to a democratic society.

A person's life now is roughly divided into 5 years of play, 16 years of school, 45 years of work and 10 plus years of uselessness in that order. Perhaps fleetingly, but no doubt often during each day, the working person contemplates the joy of a holiday of a day, a week, or a month; perhaps even thoughts of the pleasures of a distant retirement flit before the mind's eye. Unfortunately, just as often, the retiree has visions of working. The typical life style just does not prepare a worker for occupation of extended periods of leisure. And we read daily of the financial woes, loneliness, emptiness, hungers, fears and desolation of the retirees.

If so many people are unhappy not only with the national picture, but more poignantly with their personal life style some efforts at planned change, as opposed to the mindless change of globally effective business decisions I mentioned earlier, should be made.

In the Conference Reporter[1] there are two pertinent articles that lead the way for a deluge of verbosity. They are both concerned with the God-Mother-Country sanctioned concept of life-long learning. In the first place, the concept is not new; Socrates knew all about it and modeled his whole life on it. Three tides, however, have brought the idea to recent public attention. 1. College officials eyed the birth rates and discovered that for the next few years there weren't enough high school graduates to fill their classrooms and support their faculty. 2. Education is a social leveler and the masses keep bugging the politicians about justice, fair play and equal opportunity. 3. Industry is complaining about the ineptness of its employees. Hence, find new ways of recruiting from a new pool of potential students, to quiet the masses and satisfy industry as well as keep faculties fed and make politicians happy. Now that last statement is admittedly unfair to honest believers in the benefits of education. Current decisions that result in decreasing monies for the poor, for minority ethnic groups and for women attempting to return to the work force do seem to justify some cynicism.

Dr. Michael M. Marien, of the World Institute, in supporting life-long learning programs says that "Contrary to popular impression, we live in an ignorant society[2] rather than a well educated one." He agreed that kinds and specialization of learning needs are outdistancing learning attainments; that knowledge becomes quickly obsolete; and that what we say we teach and what students learn often do not coincide. He noted that a survey revealed that 77% of the people or 80 million, were interested in learning something. He concludes that we know almost nothing about what this population wants to learn.

1. May 1974 Conference on Post-secondary, Part-time, Continuing & Adult Education.

2. The Conference Reporter 5/74.

Dr. Donald R. McNeil, Chancellor of the University of Maine said the following:

"I happen to believe that higher education is for everybody, and that nobody in any part of the country at any age level should be denied access to education. That does not necessarily mean that everybody is going to be educated. What's wrong in this country is that we have set up some roadblocks to educating everybody on a life-long learning cycle.

"The whole system of education is a stop-learning process from the word go. You graduate from one school to another, and you're done with that. You take a six-week exam and you're done with that; you take a semester exam and you are done with that.

"It all encourages people to think that there's a place to stop in the life-long learning process. We've got to knock down these barriers. We need an affirmative action program to knock them down, because the adults and part-time students are being discriminated against in our educational system."

Representative Don Fraser of Minnesota read into the December 12, 1974, Congressional Record (H11713), "A Proposal for the Double Work Week" authored by Roman Carr of Minneapolis. Mr. Carr proposes a six-day work week. Each employee, however, would work only three days and utilize the other four days in education, recreation and family care. This plan was generated through a concern for the current unemployment picture and provides more job opportunities for everyone. A second benefit of his plan, however, is that time would be available for continuing education. Mr. Carr concludes: "There is no question that the capabilities of all individuals would be expanded when every worker would have the opportunity to move smoothly into the field of his choice."

Support for a complete revision of work life styles is apparent. Workers claim dissatisfaction; the economy is not absorbing the work force; educational institutions need students; and individuals and companies are exhibiting needs for additional knowledge and new technological skill. Roman Carr's model offers an opportunity for doubling the number of employment positions available. The following model does the same, but adds structured educational and recreational opportunities. This model may offer solutions for the concerns of the dominant population, the needs of educational administrators, the desires of the politicians, the demands of the employers and most emphatically, the satisfactions of the person. It differs from either that of the woman who works until she marries, takes 5-20 years off to raise the children and returns to the employment market; or the person who works from the time of high school or college graduation until retirement at age 65.

The suggested model would schedule a life roughly as:

Years	Cummulative Age	Occupation
5	5	play
16	21	school
10	31	work
5	36	vacation - 1 year avocation--2 years education--2 years
10	46	work (new or old career as preferred)
4	50	vacation -- 1 year avocation - 1 year education - 2 years
10	60	work
1	61	vacation -- 6 months education - 6 months
4	65	work (length of time worked beyond age 65 would be a discretion of individual and company)

This model may be compared with the traditional model as follows:

	Traditional	New
play	5	5
education	16	20 1/2
vacation*	0 - 3 1/2 yrs	2 1/2 - 5 1/2**
avocation	0	3
work	45	34***

* Vacation under the traditional plan averages a month a year. Thus 45 x 4 ÷ 52 equals approximately 3 1/2 years.

** Under the new plan vacation may be defined as purely rest, thus 2 1/2 years; or to include avocation, thus 5 1/2 years.

*** Since work under the new plan is negotiable beyond age 65 rather than legally defined, a person may stop at 34 years of work or continue for as long as abilities, economy and company decisions permit.

Advantages of this model are obvious:

1. There is a built-in opportunity for developing skills in a hobby continuously useful as well as interest holding after retirement.

2. There is a constant pool of civic volunteers available with widely varying skills.

3. Individuals and families can do long range planning that permit leisurely vacations and delimit the rush that overload resorts spasmodically and starve them intermittently.

4. The decreased expected work life would permit job opportunities for more people.

5. Individuals can more easily endure poor career choice knowing that there is an opportunity for training to change.

6. Companies can expect a constant influx of new ideas if not new blood, since valued employees will return with additional current training and dissatisfied and unsatisfactory ones will move to greener fields.

7. Employees, instead of just top executives would be preparing for the shock of retirement all of their lives instead of suddenly finding themselves afloat without a rudder and irritably underfoot an irate mate on their 65th birthday.

Some Current Facilitative Orientations and Practices[1]

1. Unions[2] are considering five-day work weeks; but with the fifth day's pay being government rather than company financed.

2. Some companies now provide education credits to be used by employees at will. Tuition is paid. An education credit bill has been presented to Congress.

3. The Klough Act could be expanded in concept and coverage.

4. The coverage of government guaranteed loans for education could be expanded.

5. Tax credits are given to industries; they could be given to individuals for specific purposes.

6. Unions already have various benefit package agreements with industry. This plan could be a negotiable item.

7. Some industries and civil service units already provide release time for education. This could be expanded and remodeled.

1. These were suggested by conference participants.

2. New Jersey Construction Unions.

8. Private insurance companies could expand their retirement insurance plan concepts.

9. The Welfare Incentive and Comprehensive Employment and Training Act programs' population limitations can be reviewed.

10. Veteran's educational benefits and military civil service and teacher retirement plans may be applicable to other population segments.

11. Tuition refund and loan forgiveness plans have implications for professions other than teaching and the medical professions in view of our changing service needs.

Implementation Problem Areas:

Such a new work-life plan requires upheaval in our bureaucratic, business and educational patterns to permit implementation.

1. Either employees would have to save a portion of their salaries over the 10 years work period to support them over the 5 year non-work periods or probably more realistically, employers would pay 2/3's of the salary to the employee and 1/3 into some interest bearing account, e.g. insurance, trust fund, interim pension plan, U.S. bonds, mutual funds of some guarantee, etc.

2. Colleges and vocational technological schools would need to orient themselves to the adult learning mode.

3. Educational institutions need to more seriously review their policy of running at only half speed during the summer. With air conditioning and modern transportation, education would best utilize its insidiously shrinking resources by running at full speed year round with perhaps intelligently scheduled month long breaks twice a year for repair and refueling, e.g. June and December, or August and January. This would permit accommodation of additional students including the population under question without additional space.

4. Both companies and insurance organizations would have to wipe out their biases against hiring the over 40's. If the insurance and pension followed the person instead of the company this should present no insurmountable difficulties.

5. What about the chronically unemployed and apparently unemployable for no apparent physical or psychological reason? a) a solid credit course in senior high school on the world of work, its demands, expectations and rewards with some observed on-the-job training either real or adequately simulated might assist the new generation. b) the employment office personnel procedures and assembly line are currently very discouraging to all but the most lion-hearted. While employees of any large impersonal organization constantly confronted with chronic problems will become mechanical and experience difficulty finding the light under the bushel, quality control studies and recommendations followed might well increase their hit rate on job placement, as well as effectively improve the morale of the apparent unemployables. A case in point is that an anthropologist with a doctoral degree, recognized publications and excellent references followed the procedures of the U. S. employment office for one year without one referral, much less job placement. She was handed her unemployment

check regularly and equally as regularly told, 'nothing for you' regarding a job referral. She tired of the testing after one year and acquired her own top spot within a few weeks of making her availability known amongst appropriate employers. This same experience has been reported by other individuals from truck drivers to degreed echanical engineers.

The point is that we might well significantly reduce the number of apparent chronically unemployed by a bit of scrutiny at some of our even more obvious social practices.

Our current patterns of career employment are obviously unsatisfactory to a significant number of people. Facilitation of new models encouraging opportunities for sanctioned logical change will create upheaval in our traditional patterns. The rate of change in our mechanical capability and cultural and business economy require that such opportunity be scheduled for everyone, not just an elite few. One model has been suggested in this paper. It is by no means perfect, nor may it be seen as an implementable skeleton. Some such model must be devised, however, by our social planners, if we are to avoid such dissatisfaction, disruption and dislocation in our manpower as to create the chaos that in effect halts the whole production line. The economic planners might look at these work dissatisfactions for a clue to our currently very spongy world-wide economy. Freud documented quite well that our motivations may be obscure and evidence themselves in oblique ways.

If the concept of Continuous Career Choice is acceptable then much work needs to be done in suggesting future directions.

Questions arise regarding:

Effects of this on social planning.
Economic benefits and disadvantages for industry and for the individual.
What happens on the promotional career ladder.
Are career or job families valid within this conceptual framework, and if so, which framework, e.g. the people, ideas, or things group; or the industrial groups, for example, agriculture, business, social service, services, etc.

The practical implications of these questions and such other as may occur must be considered. The time of the old work-pattern is past. New ones must be devised. We are already in Toffler's Superindustrial age, not only dissatisfied, but in a real economic and social chaos. Changes are possible if attention is given to new patterns rather than continuing to attempt to mend worn out old patterns.

SEMINAR III - COUNSELING NEEDS OF ADULT SUB-GROUPS
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SEMINAR IV MATERIALS

Educational/Occupational Counseling with Adult Clients

Dr. Helen Farmer
Department of Educational Psychology
University of Illinois
Involved in the design and development of
INQUIRY COUNSELING CENTERS FOR ADULTS

LEARNING THE GUIDED INQUIRY PROCEDURES

GUIDED INQUIRY COUNSELING WORKSHOP

TIME			
9:00 a.m. - 9:50 a.m.	OVERVIEW	-	plenary session
10:00 a.m. -10:50 a.m.	Step One	-	small group
	COFFEE		
11:00 a.m. -12:00 noon	Step Two	-	small group
	LUNCH		
1:00 p.m. - 1:50 p.m.	Step Three	-	small group
2:00 p.m. - 3:00 p.m.	Step Four, 5 & 6	-	small group
3:00 p.m. - 4:00 p.m.	INTEGRATION/discussion		plenary session
4:00 p.m.	Adjourn		

INSTRUCTIONS TO GROUP FACILITATOR

1. Grouping - It is desirable that small group size be 6-8 persons, plus the facilitator

2. Assigning roles for practice roleplaying - Assign roles the workshop prior to February 28th if possible

   Client role - assign to one person in each small group and direct their attention to the instruction sheet for client roleplaying

   Counselor role - assign four persons in each small group and direct their attention to the instruction sheet for counselor roleplaying. Assign each of these four persons to a specific Guided Inquiry Step:
   Step One
   Step Two
   Step Three
   Step Five & Six (practiced in one session)

   Step Four is not practiced, only discussed.

   Observer role - remaining small group members will be observers. Counselors will be observers when they are not roleplaying.

3. Randomly select one or two small groups (depending on the amount of video equipment available) for videotaping of practice sessions. Video taping will be continuous for groups selected in order to provide some continuity in the evolution of the counseling process. Random selection can be done by placing numbers in a hat and drawing out the required number.

4. Facilitators will observe the roleplaying in their small group and facilitate discussion following roleplaying (see next page).

5. Facilitators will meet with the client and counselor for the next practice session, between sessions to prepare for the session to follow, fill in gaps etc. (typically 10 minutes is allowed for this).

The facilitator will arrange the room for small group practice with chairs in a circle and two chairs in the middle. Role-playing should last 15-20 minutes. Discussion following roleplaying may begin with feedback from observers first. However, if counselor and client appear to be stirred up emotionally the facilitator might begin the discussion by letting them ventilate their feelings. As group facilitator try to ensure that the person playing counselor is not made to feel too uncomfortable or threatened. Strengths as well as limitations should be brought out in the discussion. You will know when the counselor is feeling threatened by either nonverbal stress cues or by defensive statements. Such indicators suggest you consider saying something supportive to the counselor. In the discussion period do not, however, avoid negative comments when these are legitimate. Learning is not always comfortable!

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE CLIENT ROLE

The main idea is to try to portray the client and act out his/her personality during the role playing situation. You may choose one of the 4 client outlines provided as the basis or your role playing OR you may choose to play the role of someone you know (perhaps yourself).

Even though you may be somewhat familiar with the Guided Inquiry process, try to act as if you didn't know what was expected of you.

You will play the same part/client for all 6 Guided Inquiry steps in the practice sessions. You will meet with your counselor and facilitator between practice sessions to

- fill in gaps
- prepare for the step to follow

If in Step 1 practice you were not able to agree on a goal in the time provided do so in between sessions (i.e. make one up) so you are prepared to role play Step 2.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR COUNSELOR ROLEPLAYING

Specific procedures for counselor role playing include:

1. Read the materails for each step carefully before roleplaying that step.

2. The procedures section outlines what you will try to accomplish in each step.

3. It will not always be possible to complete the step in the time allotted. Meet with the client between practice sessions to make up parts of a step that were not completed.

As a counselor you eventually want to be able to be responsive to all the client's needs, feelings, statements etc., however, in the early stages of practicing Guided Inquiry counseling it is appropriate to concentrate your efforts on learning to ask questions which elicit information from the client related to his/her career development. In role playing the 'client' will typically not exhibit high levels of anxiety, or unconscious feelings which are crippling his/her career development. To the extent possible, you should respond to client expressed feeling in a first interview (i.e. why he/she came for counseling; anxiety over approaching graduation etc.) but not dwell on the feeling. Obtaining a working picture of the client early in counseling will make it more likely that you can assist with resolving anxiety related to employment, or selecting a major in future interviews.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR OBSERVER

Your assignment is to observe the person playing counselor. After the role playing you are expected to share your observations with the group. You should read the materials for each Guided Inquiry Step carefully and keep the summary sheet (page 2 for each step) in front of you during role playing. This summary will tell you what the counselor is supposed to achieve in that session. Your observations should reflect such things as:

a. To what degree the objective was achieved

b. How well the counselor kept the discussion related to the objective

c. What specific strengths and shortcomings you observed in the situation

d. When you give feedback to the counselor try to balance positive comments with negative

Your observations should be based on what you observed either the client or the counselor say or do. Included here are non-verbal expressions (eye contact, physical posture etc.) as well as verbal behaviors. Try to make your comments relate to observations not on what you think the counselor or client meant (i.e. inferences).

DAVE

A second case is presented here to illustrate the path of a client through an INQUIRY Center.

Dave is 19. He finished high school last year but refuses to look for work. He has no money saved for any further education or training and his family are putting pressue on him to return to work. Dave is black and has one sister in college. His other three brothers all work in Blue Collar jobs. When Dave came to the Adult Counseling center he was living with his sister and her husband. They encouraged him to come to the center and get help!

Dave provided the following information about himself during his initial talk with the counselor at the center as they worked together to complete the questions in SIGNON relating to his work and educational history. It appears Dave would prefer to travel around the country on his motorcycle for a couple of years, but he doesn't have the money to do it. He is also interested in playing ice hockey but feels he lacks the competence needed to play professionally. His interests in high school included sketching and he has considered a career in commercial art. However, he has taken no steps to check into art training programs and totally rejects the idea of going to college. He is defensive when offered suggestions or assistance regarding his career training. Dave's high school grades and ACT scores were in the average range. His only work experience has been factory work loading trucks.

The counselor and Dave first discussed his ideal career; "What would you be doing five years from now if you could do anything you wanted to do... no holds barred?" Dave answered, "Be a commercial artist".

At this point Dave chose to enter the Educational Information System (EIS) to obtain more information on training requirements for commercial artists. He was provided with training information which indicated that training was available in several settings. He could obtain on-the-job training with some Illinois State Industries; he could attend a school devoted entirely to training of commercial artists; or he could attend a community college or four-year college. Dave's primary obstacles to obtaining training were: (a) motivation to work, and (b) lack of finances. However, Dave did not have any family responsibilities and financial assistance for a talented black student was potentially available in some of the training programs. The counselor helped Dave obtain a list of training programs where he might expect some financial assistance. Dave's lack of motivation, it turned out, was partly a result of his parents lack of support for his interests in a career in commercial art. His move to live with his sister was a step in the direction of resolving this difficulty.

Dave was asked if he would like further information about commercial artists, for example, job trends, their personal attributes, and job requirements (from the OIS service in the center). Dave said, no. He was confident that his high school art teachers would recommend him. His teachers reinforcement throughout high school for his artistic endeavors had given Dave great confidence in his ability to succeed in this field (in contrast to

his opinion of his ability in professional hockey). The counselor accepted Dave's judgment of his abilities and together they entered PLAN to figure out how to overcome financial need and obtain entrance in a desirable training program.

Dave agreed, as a first step, to send a letter to three identified commercial art training programs and request detailed information about their financial aid. Dave left the center indicating he would return with the information when it arrived and discuss next steps with the counselor. He returned in three weeks with information from two of the three training programs. Both programs appears to meet Dave's interest and needs and he agreed to send for application blanks. He returned in six weeks with completed application blanks and checked out what he had written with the counselor. He mailed the applications that day. He phoned the counselor at the end of the month to say that he had been invited to an interview at one institution and that he was going that afternoon. He phoned later that day with excitement in his voice. He had been accepted in a two year commercial art training program with financial support sufficient to cover living expenses. The institution was less than eight miles from his sister's home.

MARCIA

INQUIRY counseling centers for adults are unique in their integration of computer and counseling services. The career development tasks provide a focus for services. Guided Inquiry problem-solving procedures are taught as the mechanism for using information wisely in educational and career planning. INQUIRY centers supply "the format for experience with facts, and for their conversion into personally meaningful and useful information while teaching the processes of problem-solving" (Super, 1970, p. 379).

The case of one adult is given next as an example of how INQUIRY centers might work. Although INQUIRY centers are still in the development stage it is possible to extrapolate the path of a client through the system from our experience with persons who have helped with the field testing. The case presented is composite and hypothetical. Other adult clients might require more or less time and services than the one described.

An Illustration

Marcia was a 29 year old divorced woman who came to the INQUIRY center asking for help in finding a better job. The counselor invited her to talk about herself and her situation. Marcia was bored with her job which was responding to customer complaints and unhappy with her pay which barely covered living costs for herself and her two year old daughter.

Marcia thought of work as a means of economic support and had never viewed work as a potential source of personal satisfaction. She did get satisfaction from hobbies such as music, writing poetry for close friends, and decorating her apartment.

The counselor told Marcia that services at the INQUIRY center could probably help her. With the counselor's assistance Marcia learned to use the computer and recorded information about her background and interests on the computer. Query suggested that Marcia explore other work roles and consider possible relationships between work roles and her own interests and skills. Query described the kinds of information available and invited Marcia to choose among them.

Marcia chose to take the Self-Directed Search (Holland, 1973) in order to learn more about herself. Her scores on this inventory indicated high art interest and low interest in helping people. Some careers related to her interests were interior decorator, newswoman, artist, musical performer, and entertainer. Query gave Marcia a printed copy of the inventory's results and also stored summary scores with earlier information about her.

Marcia obtained from the computer printed descriptions of several careers which interested her. When she decided to leave, Marcia made an appointment to return to the center. Query summarized what she had done and reminded her that she was still exploring options for career planning. Teaching awareness of self as decision-maker is an important aspect of INQUIRY center design.

When Marcia returned to the center she had narrowed down her career choices to interior decorator and newswoman. She chose these careers on the basis of their favorable employment outlooks. Marcia had now begun to crystallize her career choice.

Query reviewed Marcia's previous visit to the center and asked what she would like to do today. Marcia indicated her current career choices and the reasons for them. She requested more detailed information on training requirements for interior decorator and newswoman. Query indicated to Marcia that she was moving fluidly back and forth between exploration tasks and crystallization tasks, and between Guided Inquiry problem-solving phases of clarifying goals and identifying obstacles and resources needed to achieve her goals. The information on training for the careers of interior decorator and newswoman indicated that Marcia could attend a professional school, obtain on-the-job training, or attend a two or four year college. Each option had a different price tag, class schedule, and length of training. Financial aid and salary range were about equal for either career. But since the minimum training time required for becoming a newswoman was twice that for an interior decorator, Marcia decided that interior decorator was the most attractive career.

Marcia discussed her choice with the counselor and said that she was somewhat frightened about going back to school after nine years of employment. Because Marcia viewed herself as intelligent the counselor suggested that she might wish to take a current measure of her intelligence. Marcia liked this suggestion and took a multiple choice adaptation of the Weschler Adult Intelligence Scale (Costar, 1975) which was on the computer. She was surprised and pleased when she obtained a superior rating on general intelligence. Marcia also chose to obtain information on her art judgment skill, using a test off line. Her above average rating on the Maier Art Judgment test gave her the confidence she needed to choose interior decorator as the career to pursue. Crystallization and exploration were complete for the time being for Marcia and she was ready to begin planning to implement her choice.

Marcia indicated that a formal degree program was superior to an on-the-job training program if sufficient financial aid could be arranged. Guided Inquiry problem-solving phases two, three and four were used to help Marcia find a solution to her financial needs. From the computer Marcia obtained information on costs and on financial aid available at colleges and professional art schools in the Chicago area. She discussed the comparative advantages of various schools with the counselor. Together they worked out a plan for her to interview with the most desirable schools to determine whether she met their requirements and whether they could help her financially.

Marcia's plan to interview at several training schools and colleges in the Chicago area worked well. She was accepted in both a professional school and a two year college. Because the two year college's offer was generous enough to take care of both Marcia's financial needs and those of her daughter, she accepted it. Marcia's tryout was a successful illustration of Guided Inquiry problem-solving phases five and six. She was ready to begin implementing her career choice in earnest.

The case of Marcia was presented to illustrate the integration of the counseling and computer function in INQUIRY centers and the related time savings for the client and the counselor. The exact roles of the counselor and Query will vary somewhat from client to client. Many clients will come for specific kinds of information and leave within fifteen minutes. Other clients will stay several hours and return on repeated occasions. All services at INQUIRY have as their goal increasing the number of educational and career options open to adults. Clearly, not all counseling works out as well as this illustration. Marcia's superior abilities and the availability of financial help were crucial in her success.

PAULA

Paula is a woman who grew up focusing her energies and daydreams on preparing for a career. She invested little, if any time, in dreaming about the role of wife and mother, or in practicing for these roles. Paula met a man at graduate school preparing to enter the same career as herself, and she fell in love and married him. Implicit in her thinking was the belief that they would both continue their careers and that if a family came along, they would both share in the child rearing responsibilities equally. She had not bothered to check this assumption with her husband, and it turned out that he had no intention of giving time to child rearing--that, in fact, his career was the single priority of his life. Paula's career went by the boards for a time, ten years to be exact, while she raised three children, did volunteer work in the community, and some part-time work related to her professional training. When she came to see me for counseling, Paula was carrying an accumulation of disappointment, frustration and anger born out of false expectations and belief in equality of the sexes (i.e., equal opportunity and equal responsibility).

Paula's case is a reversal of the counseling needs of many women. A majority of women are socialized in the home and school to expect to grow up to be wives and mothers (Tyler, 1964) and their problems develop out of lack of satisfaction in these roles (Friedan, 1963) at which point they begin to look for satisfaction in other roles, (i.e., working, volunteerism, etc.). Other women are faced with the necessity of work when their husbands die or abandon them. Ann, described next, is such a woman.

ANN

Ann is a bright woman who ranked in the top three percent in her high school physics class. However, she was not interested in pursuing a career commensurate with her scientific ability. Instead, she planned to marry and raise a family. She married before finishing college and settled down to the serious business of being the best mother and wife in her neighborhood. Her husband found a younger woman more attractive than Ann and left her at the age of 42. With the new divorce laws in some states, (Ann lives in California) a woman cannot expect to be supported indefinitely by her estranged husband, if she is at all able to work. Usually a reasonable time is allowed by the courts for a woman to obtain some training (two years is typical) before she is responsible for her own economic support. At this point in her life Ann arrived in my counseling office, confused and hurt. Her early promise in the natural sciences, held little appeal for Ann now and any training she could obtain in two years could only prepare her for a technician role in the sciences at best.

HUSTON

Huston is a 23 year old high school dropout. He is confident, verbal, and has clearly indicated his desire to go to college. At 17, he dropped out of high school and enlisted in the Navy for four years. He performed at an average level when he was in school. In the service, he was assigned to a gun crew; consequently, he had no specialized training that would transfer to a civilian occupation. After his honorable discharge, he worked as a maintenance man for a small business for one year. The job involved the repair of small equipment. He grew dissatisfied with the job because it required little interaction with people and was not intellectually demanding. He looked for a better job, but found his efforts fruitless as a result of his lack of education.

Huston's reasons for coming to the counseling center involve his desire to attend college, which he sees as a logical thing to do. He is ambitious and hard working. He wants to explore his academic potential and interests. He wants to know if he can be successful in college without a high school diploma.

His ACT test scores suggested average academic potential for college. His SCII scores reflected a primary interest pattern in business. In spite of his confidence and desire, Huston has academic doubts about himself. He admits his doubts and says he wants to acquire a lot more information. He was recommended for Guided Inquiry Group Counseling.

THE SIX STEPS OF GUIDED INQUIRY

STEP ONE

CLARIFYING GOALS

Guided Inquiry: Structure for Learning Problem-Solving

Using educational and career information wisely requires some structure for planning and decision-making. Guided Inquiry counseling (Farmer, 1974; Healy, 1974; Sorenson, 1967) is one procedure for providing this structure. Figure 2 presents the six Guided Inquiry phases in summary form.

The description of Guided Inquiry which follows assumes a client-counselor interaction. In computer-assisted INQUIRY centers the counselor's role is more often taken by the computer, which is programmed to teach problem-solving processes and to facilitate client awareness of self as decision-maker.

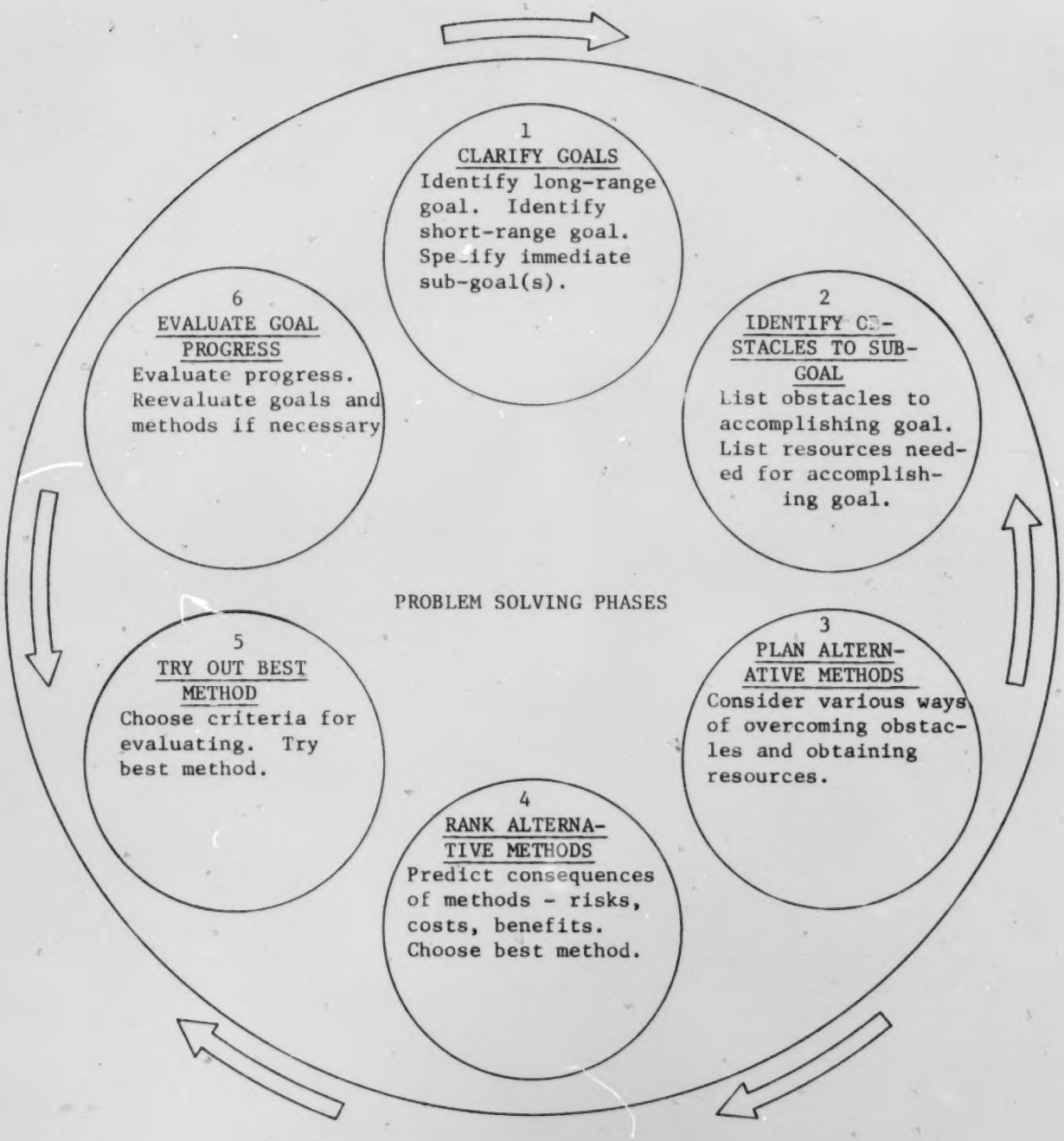
Guided Inquiry is basically a method adapted from the problem-solving research of Gagne (1970), the learning theory research of Bruner (1966), and the counseling theory of Sorenson (1967) and Rogers (1961, 1975). The result is an approach in which the counselor allows the client to get in touch with the self, teaches the client problem-solving processes, and encourages the client to accept responsibility for decisions. The procedure is reflective at times, didactic at others. It is useful for personal problems as well as educational and career planning.

The phases of Guided Inquiry counseling are logically ordered and represent a typical problem-solving path. However, the procedure is dynamic and flexible as the arrows in Figure 2 attempt to indicate. Many clients will find it beneficial to recycle back to an early phase after working on some later phase (e.g., reformulate goals after considering methods of overcoming obstacles). When clients neither need to nor want to work on some phase, they can skip it. See brief description of the 6 phases of Guided Inquiry on page

A relatively simple problem case is given here as an example of how Guided Inquiry counseling might work. Many problems would require more time from the counselor, than the one that follows.

Joan worked in a cigar store earning $450 a month and was very dissatisfied with her life and her work. Recently she broke up with her boyfriend, after six years of going steady. One day she was telling her troubles to a friend who suggested she come to the INQUIRY Center to see if they could help her find more interesting work. Joan is 32 years old and has an A.A. degree preparing her to be an X-ray Technician. She was not accepted in the lab portion of this training because of some personal disagreement with the Dean at her school. However, she found later when she was employed in a clinic that she particulary hated being neat and systematic (i.e., filing x-ray folders). Joan doesn't want to go back to school full time but she would like to get a better paying job and she is willing to take a course in medical terminology to prepare herself to work as a medical secretary. She hates typing, but she is talented in learning medical terminology and it gives her pleasure to learn difficult new words.

Joan's experience in using Guided Inquiry counseling to help her resolve this apparent inconsistency is described briefly below as she worked through each of the six steps.


1
CLARIFY GOALS
Identify long-range goal. Identify short-range goal. Specify immediate sub-goal(s).
2
IDENTIFY OBSTACLES TO SUB-GOAL
List obstacles to accomplishing goal. List resources needed for accomplishing goal.
3
PLAN ALTERNATIVE METHODS
Consider various ways of overcoming obstacles and obtaining resources.
4
RANK ALTERNATIVE METHODS
Predict consequences of methods - risks, costs, benefits. Choose best method.
5
TRY OUT BEST METHOD
Choose criteria for evaluating. Try best method.
6
EVALUATE GOAL PROGRESS
Evaluate progress. Reevaluate goals and methods if necessary
PROBLEM SOLVING PHASES

Step One. Clarify Goals, Step one, is the step in which the client works with the counselor to determine both his/her long-range and short range educational and career goals. It is important to point out that the long-range goal may be as unspecific as 'choose a satisfying career' or as specific as 'become a nuclear physicist'. The short-range goal should be more specific and is one that the counselor and client can work toward achieving in whatever time they agree to work together. In Joan's case, her short range goal was to find an educational program or a job opportunity which would be more interesting and better paying than her present job, within the next few months and get away from the area where her x-boyfriend lived.

Step Two. Identify Obstacles to Subgoal (and needed resources) Step two is the step in which the client and counselor think together about what possible stumbling blocks might prevent goal accomplishment. In addition they list needed resources (i.e., financial, time, grades, references, etc.). In Joan's case, given her unwillingness to attend school full time, possible obstacles were training requirements for the type of job she wanted. Another example of an obstacle to a career goal might be the math requirement for someone who wished to become an architect but hated math. A third example might be the need for child-care for a woman wishing to return to school.

Step Three. Plan Alternative Methods, Step three, is the step in which the client and counselor together consider as many possible methods for overcoming obstacles and obtaining the resources identified in step two. The counselor encourages the client, in this step, to consider the experience of others, and his/her own past experience in thinking of methods to use. Sometimes general principles or guidelines are worked out for a client which are known to work most of the time. Joan soon became aware (with some help from her counselor) that she had been choosing careers that interested her, but which at the same time required her to spend most of her time doing things she didn't like and didn't do well. Based on this insight Joan adopted the guidelines, 'I should never accept an offer of a job which requires careful attention to small details'. Joan also concluded that she enjoyed promotional activities and would try and combine this interest with her medical interest. In Joan's list of alternative methods she included: (a) check employment ads in the newspapers and dental and medical publications; (b) send my work resume to agencies who hire persons with my type of training and experience; and (c) check training programs offered in two and four year colleges which might prepare me for work combining advertising with medical technology.

Step Four. Rank Alternative Methods, Step four, is the step in which the client and counselor together try to predict the consequences of using each method; the risks, costs, and benefits involved in each. Guided Inquiry counseling provides the client with a cost/benefit inventory to assist he/she in weighing the pluses and minuses associated with each method. In Joan's case, careful consideration of the benefits and costs associated with each alternative method led her to conclude that all three methods had potential benefits, and that the costs associated with each were relatively small. She decided to try all three rather than any single one.

Step Five. Tryout Best Method, Step five, is the step in which the client tries out the method, (or methods in Joan's case) with the most potential benefits and least cost. One of the principles of effective counseling is to provide the learner with feedback on how well he or she is doing (Krumboltz & Thoresen, 1969). The person can collaborate in this effort by providing

descriptive information on his or her tryouts and by setting standards of success for him/herself. In deciding who to send work resumes to, Joan found that the INQUIRY Occupational Information System could provide her with a list of potential employers. The counselor worked with Joan to review information provided by the computer, helped her sift it and obtain more information as needed, then they worked together on developing her resume, highlighting her experience in medical settings and sales and not highlighting her typing skills.

Step Six. Evaluate Goal Progress, step six, is the step in which the counselor and client together review progress toward goal achievement and revise methods currently being used if necessary. In Joan's case this progress review indicated that she had obtained information on a job opening in a pharmaceutical firm in a nearby city for an advertizing agent through her efforts responding to ads for employment in the newspaper. Joan arranged for a job interview, was offered the job at a salary attractive to her and she accepted. The alternative of returning to school was dropped in favor of obtaining immediate employment in a role that appealed to her, and in a location far from her x-boyfriend. Joan's goal was achieved for the present. She was invited to keep in touch with the counselor, however, in the event that the job did not work out as predicted.

The counselor may at times work with an adult only once or twice, as with Joan. At other times the counselor may work with an adult for several weeks planning and trying out a feasible satisfying plan.

Counselors of adult clients are encouraged to become familiar with the principles of decision-making and problem-solving, and their application, to assist adults in using the resources both within themselves and within their community in an optimal way. Guided Inquiry is an example of one approach to providing these skills to clients. The reader is encouraged to read Jepson and Dilley's (1974) review of seven different models currently in use by counselors and to become familiar with the one that best meets the needs of his/her clients.

GUIDED INQUIRY CAREER COUNSELING

A Client Guide

In many ways your life depends upon the decisions you make in deciding on a career. Everyone strives for success in life, but not everyone achieves it. Many people become so entangled in the web of job possibilities, that they flounder helplessly through several jobs hoping that they will eventually stumble into the right career. Some people select jobs on the basis of one particular element such as salary, others simply go along with the crowd and hope that what is right for their friends is right for them. These types of action are risky, and while it might work for some, the majority will not be so fortunate.

It is important that you plan for a career which will bring you satisfaction, for which employment opportunities exist and which is compatible with your values, interests, aptitudes, experiences, and personality. One of the primary purposes of this program is to help you in starting to plan your career. This planning will give you a chance to check out your personal capabilities and potentials in terms of personal goals and opportunities. It will allow you to make adjustments in your objectives and to take corrective measures to overcome difficulties. Although you will typically be suited to several occupations rather than 'one right' occupation, you will typically be employed throughout your life in more than one job, therefore, your career plan should be flexible enough to accommodate change. It should provide the proper growth and development to achieve success in your life's work. Many people are engaged in work in which they have no interest, receive no satisfaction, or fail to utilize fully their aptitudes and talents. Proper career planning should keep you from falling into work for which you are ill-suited.

Your career takes a large chunk of your time. You must plan your vocational endeavors to insure adequate satisfaction in life. You must direct your efforts, your schooling, and your experiences toward a career or vocational pursuit for which you are best suited. When you make a decision as to a particular field of endeavor, you are determining the direction of your life's work. You are declaring yourself. To do this without knowing yourself from all aspects, and without knowing the various careers, occupations, and job opportunities for which you may be suited, would be foolish indeed.

The importance of your vocational decisions should be obvious. If you make a sound decision, you will be able to fulfill your interests, develop your values, express your abilities, and contribute to society. Then again, if you are not able to make a sound decision, the time, cost, and energy spent for training will be wasted. Your satisfaction with your life will likely be difficult. So therefore, it is essential that you learn a procedure that will assist you in making good vocational decisions.

A good decision-making strategy will provide you with a plan for separating the relevant from the irrelevant, fact from fantasy, and keep you pointed toward your goal. Just as a carpenter can do a much better job of building a house if he has a plan, you can do a much better job of dealing with the future if you have a plan.

Since we are both thinking and feeling beings, it is possible for us to learn to behave differently and more competently if we understand better why we do certain things. This is the reason the Guided Inquiry model of counseling teaches rules and principles relevant to your career counseling objectives and goals.

To gain an understanding of your career goals and objectives, your counselor will be using a form of "discovery" learning which we call "guided inquiry" or "problem-solving". In this approach to counseling we believe that not only are you competent to solve your own problems with a little guidance, but also, that you will retain the solution much longer and be able to apply it to new and different situations throughout your life if you figure out the solution yourself.

In the guided inquiry model of counseling, the counselor will guide you through a series of problems solving steps in which you will be asked to:

1. Clarify your goal.
2. Identify obstacles to achieving your goal.
3. Plan alternatives for overcoming obstacles to accomplishing your goal.
4. Evaluate each alternative.
5. Select one alternative to try out.
6. Evaluate your progress toward your goal.

It is intended that you will do much of the talking and decision-making. The weekly meetings are intended to give you practice in problem solving and decision-making skills which we hope you will carry with you for the rest of your life.

CLIENT ENTRY QUESTIONNAIRE

1. What do you expect from this counseling? _____

_____

2. What do you expect to accomplish in counseling in relation to making a career choice? _____

_____

_____

3. What school subjects do you enjoy most? _____

_____

4. What school subjects do you enjoy least? _____

_____

5. What kinds of school work give you most difficulty? _____

_____

6. What do you like to do in your spare time? _____

_____

7. What kind of full or part-time work have you done in the past? _____

_____

8. What kind of work are you currently doing (if any)? _____

_____

9. If you could do ANYTHING you wanted as a career, what would you choose to do? _____

_____

_____ _____

Your Name (Please Print) Counselor's Name (Please Print)

GUIDED INQUIRY GROUP CAREER COUNSELING

STEP 1

CLARIFY GOALS

A. GET ACQUAINTED WITH CLIENT

B. SELECT A GENERAL LONG-RANGE CAREER GOAL

C. DISCUSS SOME STEPS TO ACHIEVE GOAL

GUIDED INQUIRY STEP ONE

Step 1 of Guided Inquiry involved the identification of both long and short range goals related to educational/career development. Long range goals may be as general as find a satisfying career or as specific as become employed as a journalist. In between goals include: combine family and a career; survive without being employed; continue to race cars for fun while employed; and earn $50,000 a year. You are not concerned about the realism of your client's goal at this early stage of counseling, but rather in getting acquainted with him/her and finding out what really turns this person on (or off). Study Figure 1 on the next page.

At least three kinds of information are needed by a person to make an informed and free choice among possible career options. These kinds of information are listed in Chart 44 and include a wide range of information about the self and about opportunities for training and employment. Information needed also includes information about support services and resources available. Realistic information is needed about employment trends and discrimination as well. Some clients come to you with much of this information already in hand. Others need your help in obtaining some or all of it. Step One of Guided Inquiry can therefore, potentially take only a few minutes of the client's time OR several weeks of his/her time.

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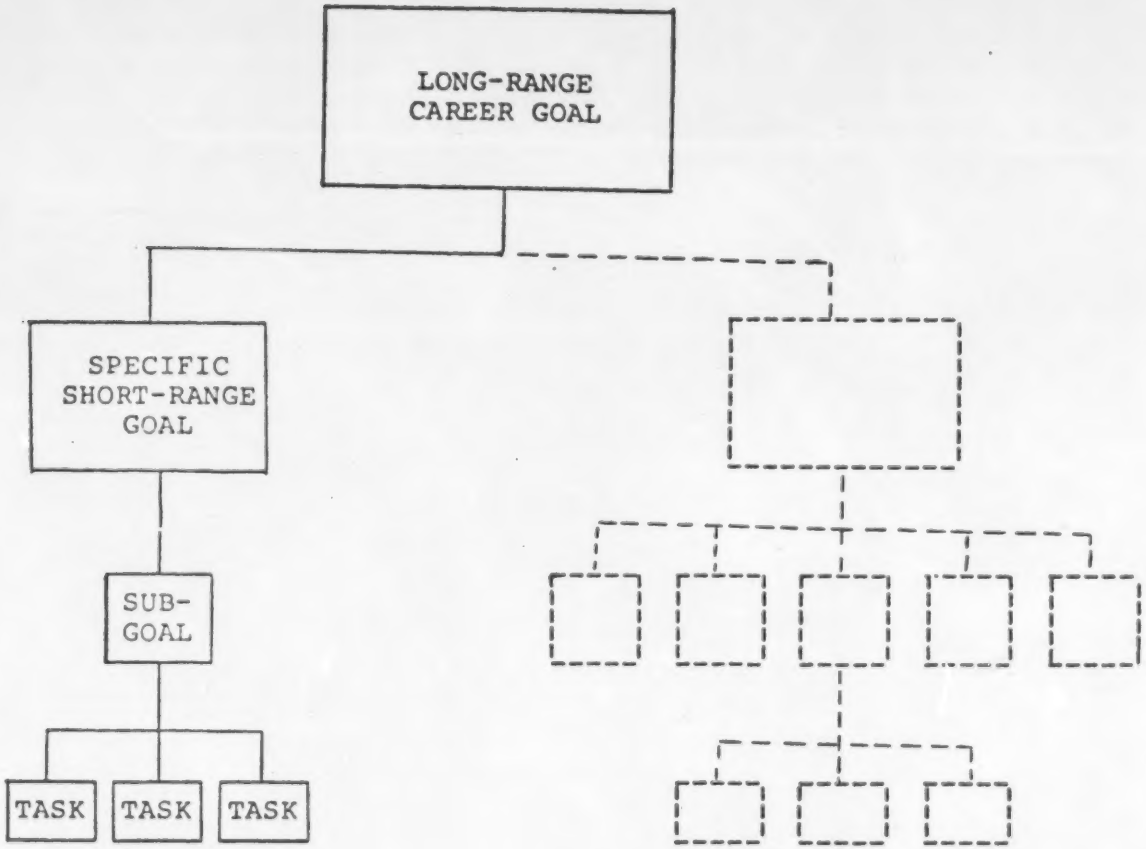
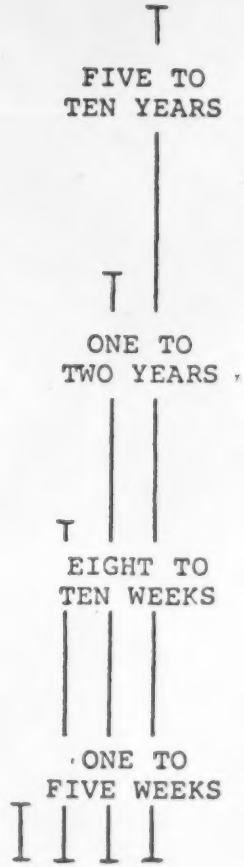
GUIDED INQUIRY
STEP ONE





STEPS IN
GUIDED INQUIRY GROUP CAREER COUNSELING
SUMMARY SHEET

1 CLARIFY GOALS

Long-range Career Goal:

_____

Specific Career Goal:

_____

_____

Tasks:

a._____ c._____

b._____ z:_____

2 IDENTIFY OBSTACLES TO SUBGOAL

a._____

b._____

First Task:

Outcome: _____

Standard: _____

Condition: _____

3 PLAN ALTERNATIVE METHODS

Alternatives to overcome obstacles and accomplish first task:

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

Rule/Principle _____

4 RANK ALTERNATIVE METHODS

First _____

Second _____

Third _____

Fourth _____

Fifth _____

5 TRYOUT BEST METHOD

I will be successful when...

_____

_____

_____

_____

6 EVALUATE GOAL PROGRESS

First week: _____

Second week: _____

Third week: _____

Task achieved; ready to recycle to Step 1, week of _____.

(use additional sheets as needed)

Chart 44

Career Development - A Three Stage Process

Developmental Tasks

Information About Self Goals - To Obtain Knowledge of: . Interests . Values . Aptitudes . Skills . Needs . Temperament
Information About Opportunities Goals - To Obtain Knowledge of: . Major Occupational Groups . Role Characteristics of Each Group . Labor Trends in Relation to Each Group . Education and/or Training Requirements . Educational Opportunities
Choice of Occupation to Explore Which Matches Self-Concept to Occupational Role Goals - To Choose Tentatively . To Select an Occupational Group . To Explore Particular Work Roles . To Know That She Has a Range of Occupations to Choose From . To Hold Her Career Choice Tentatively . To Explore Training Opportunities

For purposes of learning Guided Inquiry counseling we will largely ignore the vast amount of information needs the client might have and make the assumption that she/he knows some of this already. In your day to day counseling with real clients you cannot make that assumption.

Once a longrange goal has been agreed upon by client and counselor it is important to think through with the client the various steps needed to achieve this goal. Initially this discussion will be general in nature, but eventually will lead to a list of steps that provide a starting point for the client to implement his/her goal. Refer back to Figure 1 for a suggested description of how intermediate steps link up with a longrange goal. The long range goal may change over time, and the intermediate steps with it. It is still a useful place to start with a step the client believes is related to something he/she really wants to accomplish.

STEP ONE-CLARIRYING GOALS

MATERIALS AND NOTES FOR THE COUNSELOR

Materials

A. Step One: Entry Questionnaire (This questionnaire should be filled out sometime before or at the beginning of the first session by the client)

Supplementary Materials (not for training session)

B. An Introduction to Guided Inquiry Career Counseling (This introduction should be given to the client at the beginning of this first session)

C. Step One: Worksheet (This worksheet should be given to the client at the end of the second session to be filled out and brought back for the next counseling session)

D. Step One: Guide (Give client this guide if they are having difficulty focusing their general career goal)

E. Client Summary Sheet (This sheet will be used for all Six Steps)

Notes

When you are guiding the client in setting career goals keep in mind the following points:

A. the goal must be one the student wants

B. the goal must be one the counselor can support

C. the goal must be amenable to statement in behavioral terms to allow for procedures to be listed for its accomplishment and evaluation of its effectiveness (goal here is counseling goal)

D. some obstacles to focusing student's goals are: choice conflict, unrealistic goals, goals that are too global, problems that are "feelings" rather than career problems, students may be too stressful -- too anxious to think rationally, and the client may not want to work at all.

Procedures

1. Give client Entry Questionnaire to fill out before practice session.

2. When role playing begins ask client for the questionnaire and review information with client.

3. At the end of the get acquainted discussion (5-10 minutes) ask the client what he/she would like to be doing five to ten years from now. Discuss this.

4. Discuss with client some of the steps that will be needed to achieve his/her long range goal.

STEP ONE: WORKSHEET

1. Long-range career goal: (5-10 years from now)

2. Specific short-range goals: (1-2 years from now)

3. Sub-goal selected for this counseling (1 session or 2-4 months)

4. Tasks needed to accomplish sub-goal in #3 above:

   a.

   b.

   c.

5. Task selected for counseling following completion of STEP TWO:

   Outcome:

   Standard:

   Condition:

Your Name (Please Print)

Counselor's Name (Please Print)

STEP ONE: GUIDE

1. My career goal for this group is _____.

2. Go to the library during the week and look up the worker trait requirements for your career goal in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT). Fill in the first column of the chart below with the DOT description of required aptitudes, interests, physical demands and temperament.

   - Next, fill in column two, based on your present information about yourself.
   - Third, note in column three if there is a discrepancy between the DOT requirements and your present information about yourself.
   - In the last column list any obstacle you could anticipate in trying to match the traits in column one with those in column two.

	1. DOT Information	2. Self Appraisal	3. Differences	4. Obstacles to Overcoming Differences
Aptitudes				
Interests				
Physical Demands				
Temperament				

3. After reading what the Occupational Outlook Handbook has to say about your career choice, check the following statements as they apply to you:

   a. It will be easy to get a job in my career choice, provided I have all the 'worker trait requirements' listed in the DOT.

      yes _____ no _____ ? _____

   b. It will be difficult to get a job in my career choice, even though I have all the 'worker trait requirements' listed in the DOT.

      yes _____ no _____ ? _____

   c. If my answer to 'b' above was 'yes', perhaps I should think about selecting another career goal.

      yes _____ no _____ ? _____

4. Does the information I have about training requirements for my career goal, as it is described in the current Occupational Outlook Handbook match my personal resources in relation to:

   - entrance requirements
   - previous experience
   - personal attributes
   - references
   - special aptitude tests

   If yes, check here _____

   If no, what resources do you need? _____

   _____

   What potential obstacles are there to obtaining the items listed above?

   _____

   _____

   _____

5. What are the financial requirements for obtaining the necessary training for this career?

_____

I have _____% of this amount. I will need $_____. I could develop a plan for obtaining the additional money which I would be willing to follow. Yes _____ No _____.

6. What are the time requirements needed to obtain the necessary training for my career goal? Years _____ Months _____. Are you willing to invest this time in training and defer the time when you are earning an income? Yes _____ No _____. Are you free from responsibilities at home (personal or family) which would permit you to defer employment for this period of time? Yes _____ No _____.

7. What resources are available to me for training over the next few years?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

8. Are there behaviors I am performing now which are preventing me from accomplishing my goal:

- not saving money _____
- not earning money _____
- not studying hard enough to earn good grades _____
- not moving out of an unsupportive environment _____

9. Are there beliefs which I hold which interfere with accomplishing my career goals such as:

- it's not necessary to work to have a satisfying life _____
- it's someone else's responsibility to pay for my career training _____
- it's not my fault if my grades are lousy _____

Please bring this Worksheet to the next group counseling meeting.

_____ _____ _____

Your Name (Please Print) Counselor's Name (Please Print)

STEP TWO

IDENTIFYING OBSTACLES

STEP TWO

IDENTIFYING OBSTACLES

GUIDED INQUIRY GROUP CAREER COUNSELING

STEP 2

IDENTIFY OBSTACLES

A. LIST OBSTACLES TO SUB-GOAL

B. LIST RESOURCES NEEDED FOR SUB-GOAL

STEP TWO - IDENTIFYING OBSTACLES

After career goals have been carefully selected, the client needs to ask himself, "What possible stumbling blocks could prevent me from accomplishing my career goal?" It is possible, for example, to have all the necessary interests and aptitudes for a particular career, such as nursing, and yet be prevented from acquiring the necessary training because of overcrowding in the nurses' training programs. If this is a realistic "obstacle" identified early in a client's career planning, alternatives for overcoming this obstacle might be developed such as a plan to attend a less crowded training institution. Such a plan might involve obtaining extra money for room and board away from home. When a need is anticipated early, it can be met.

An example of an obstacle to the career goal of becoming an architect might be the math requirement. Should a person who dislikes math choose such a goal, and if he does, how will he overcome this obstacle?

The first procedure in overcoming obstacles to career success is identifying the obstacles as early as possible. This is the task set for the client and the counselor in Step Two.

COUNSELOR OBJECTIVE AND PROCEDURES

Objective

The counselor will guide the client in identifying the requirements of their career goal and the obstacles to achieving their goal.

Procedures

Discuss resources needed and obstacles identified by the client in his/her Step Two worksheet. Review list of possible obstacles (see Notes) if client can't think of any. However, it is possible that some client's have no obstacles.

STEP TWO-IDENTIFYING OBSTACLES

MATERIALS AND NOTES FOR THE COUNSELOR

Materials

Step Two: Worksheet (This Worksheet should be given to each client prior to meeting to discuss this step)

Notes

The following obstacles to client goal accomplishment should be kept in mind:

A. lack of information

B. lack of skill

C. lack of interest

D. lack of aptitude

E. choice conflict

F. inter-personal conflict (important other disapproves)

G. lack of financial resource

H. lack of time

I. lack of opportunity in society as now constituted

J. dysfunctional behaviors

K. dysfunctional beliefs

L. dysfunctional environment

STEPS IN
GUIDED INQUIRY GROUP CAREER COUNSELING
SUMMARY SHEET

1 CLARIFY GOALS

Long-range Career Goal:
to be employed as a social worker

Specific Career Goal:
obtain an M.A. in Social Work

Sub-Goal: *get accepted in an accredited school of Social Work*

Tasks:
a. *locate schools*
b. *entrance info*
c. *apply*
z: *get accepted*

2 IDENTIFY OBSTACLES TO SUBGOAL

a *may be too old for Program*

b. *need information on schools*

First Task:
Outcome: *Obtain sponsor to write a letter recommending me in spite of age, for Program*
Standard: *from Professor who has demonstrated ability to sponsor*
Condition: *within three months*

3 PLAN ALTERNATIVE METHODS

Alternatives to overcome obstacles and accomplish first task:
a. *ask qualifying Professor I have worked with*
b. *go to CACE for recommendation*
c. *ask unknown professor, known to champion women*
d.

Rule/Principle *Affirmative Action legislation justifies my requesting acceptance in spite of age*

4 RANK ALTERNATIVE METHODS

First *20/13*
Second *16/13*
Third *16/11*
Fourth
Fifth

5 TRYOUT BEST METHOD

I will be successful when...

My professor writes a letter recommending an accredited School of Social Work accept me into their program.

6 EVALUATE GOAL PROGRESS

First week: *successful, 6th day*

Second week:

Third week:

Task achieved; ready to recycle to Step 1, week of *second week*.

(use additional sheets as needed)

STEP TWO: WORKSHEET

Identifying Obstacles

goal for this counseling period is: _____.

Yes No

___ ___ 1. Do I need information to accomplish my sub-goal? ___ ___.
If yes, list your information needs:

_____

_____

___ ___ 2. Do I need any additional skills to accomplish my sub-goal?

___ ___. If yes, list the skills needed: _____

_____

___ ___ 3. Do I have enough interest in accomplishing this sub-goal to put out the effort to accomplish it? ___ ___.

___ ___ 4. Do I have the potential ability to learn the skills needed to accomplish this sub-goal (if skills were listed in #2 above)? ___ ___

___ ___ 5. Do I have the money to accomplish this sub-goal? ___ ___

___ ___ 6. Do I have enough time to accomplish this sub-goal? ___ ___

___ ___ 7. Do I have enough confidence in myself to accomplish this sub-goal? ___ ___

___ ___ 8. Will there be employment opportunities for me? ___ ___

___ ___ 9. Are there other obstacles to accomplishing this goal?

_____

_____

_____

On the next page summarize your list of obstacles to achieving your sub-goal (all items checked in the yes column).

STEP TWO

Summary List of Obstacles

goal: _____

Obstacles:

1. _____

_____

_____

2. _____

_____

_____

3. _____

_____

_____

4. _____

_____

_____

5. _____

_____

_____

In your best judgment, are these obstacles surmountable: ____yes ____no

If yes, continue to STEP THREE

If no, go back to STEP ONE

STEP THREE

PLAN ALTERNATIVE MEANS

STEP 3

PLAN ALTERNATIVE MEANS

A. LIST ALTERNATIVE MEANS FOR OVERCOMING OBSTACLES AND ACCOMPLISHING GOALS(S)

B. ADAPT GUIDELINE WHEN RELEVANT

PLAN ALTERNATIVE MEANS

In Step three the client considers as many methods as possible for overcoming obstacles and obtaining needed resources. The client is encouraged to draw on his/her own experience in thinking of methods to use. The counselor may add to the suggestions that the client thinks of when such additions complement the client's list. Working as partners in thinking of solutions is the intent.

For example Mrs. Jones, a first grade teacher, asked the counselor for suggestions about the following case. She was having great difficulty in controlling George, a six year old, who would get up and walk about the room when he was supposed to be sitting and taking part in a reading exercise. She had tried punishing him by having him sit by her whenever he disobeyed but that didn't work. The counselor suggested that she consider that what is punishing to some persons may be rewarding to others. After briefly mulling over the situation Mrs. Jones said, "I bet George likes sitting by me". She suggested, later in the counseling interview, that she let George sit by her any time he wanted as long as he was not disrupting the class. It turned out that this solution worked for George. Together counselor and client had come up with a possible solution.

Mrs. Jones' solution to her problem was prompted by her counselor's suggestion in the form of a general guideline (i.e. what is punishing to some persons may be rewarding to others). Such guidelines have been used to guide individual behavior since the beginning of time.

Albert Ellis, the well known therapist in New York City, tells a personal story about a guideline he used to help him solve one of his personal problems. When he was a student at New York University he was fearful of going into the campus coffee shop to sit down with fellow students. He would stand outside and peer into the coffee shop, but never go in. Then one day, he said to himself, "You are as good as the next guy", and he walked in and sat down. He had to use this guideline frequently in social situations to get up enough courage to join social gatherings. This guideline worked for Ellis.

Lack of self-confidence may be an obstacle to career plans for some clients. Helping such a client find a guideline that will work for them in overcoming this obstacle is a critical role for the counselor. Frequently such guidelines will be highly personal, while at the same time having a longrange application for a client. Other guidelines more clearly related to career development planning are suggested in the section headed Notes.

STEP THREE: PLANNING ALTERNATIVE MEANS

MATERIALS AND NOTES FOR THE COUNSELOR

Materials

A. Step Three Worksheet

Notes

The Zen Buddists have a practice in which each person who wishes to learn to meditate is given his/her own "omm" or saying. No one else may have this "omm", it only works for one person. In the same way, guidelines taught or suggested in Guided Inquiry Counseling must eventually become unique for each client.

Chart 44 in Step One listed three kinds of information that most clients need for career planning. Some guidelines based on these three sets of needs follow. You will find yourself recalling other relevant guidelines as you work with your client.

SOME CAREER GUIDELINES

A. For clients who lack information about themselves, the following career guidelines may be helpful:

1. If personal values are considered in making a career choice in addition to occupational information and information about personal abilities and skills, then personal satisfaction in a career is more likely.

2. If personal interests (hobbies, etc.) are considered in making a career choice, in addition to occupational information, and information about personal abilities and skills, then personal satisfaction is more likely in a career.

3. If information about personal aptitudes and skills is obtained from experience with hobbies, extracurricular activities, part-time work, academic/school experiences and the results of a variety of tests, i.e., several sources then your information about your aptitudes and skills will be more complete.

4. If personality traits such as liking to work indoors instead of out, to work with things instead of people are considered when you choose a career, then personal satisfaction in that career is more likely.

5. If family friends and teachers have had a high influence in your choice of a career, then you should try and decide if their choice for you is also something you are suited for and would enjoy doing.

B. For clients who lack information about occupations, the following career guidelines may be useful:

1. Since occupations are clustered into about 10 major groupings covering thousands of occupations, then you can learn quickly about these groupings and you can view the choices open to you in a more manageable way.

2. Since certain personality traits, interests, values, skills and aptitudes relate to particular occupational groups, then knowledge of which occupational group matches your personality will help you choose a career in which you are likely to succeed.

3. If the employment opportunities for a particular career are good then there is a good chance that I will be able to get a job in that career. However, if the employment opportunities for a particular career are decreasing then there is a good chance that I will not get a job in that career.

4. Since educational and/or training requirements and resources needed to obtain these may or may not be possible for you to obtain, then you need to know what these are and if you can obtain them before choosing a career goal.

5. Since exploratory experiences (visiting work situations; part-time work; and interviewing persons established in different careers) can help increase the information you have about a particular career, then I will plan to explore several aspects of my career goal.

C. For clients who are ready to integrate information about themselves and occupational information, the following career guidelines may be helpful:

1. Since in the world of modern technology and change, career choice is not a one time event, therefore, any choice I make should be held tentatively.

2. If work satisfaction depends on finding a job(s) which suits your interests, abilities, values and personality traits, then I will choose a career which is the best fit for me.

3. Since each person can usually be successful and satisfied in more than one career, then each person can legitimately choose among several good career options.

4. Since vocational choice is often somewhat of a compromise between opportunity, interest, ability, resources, values and personality traits, then I will not hold out for a perfect career fit.

5. If learning how to adjust to changing career opportunities is critical to a satisfying work life then learning how to make wise decisions now will help me make wise decisions when and/if I am required to make a new career choice in the future.

STEP THREE: PLANNING ALTERNATIVE MEANS

COUNSELOR OBJECTIVE(S) AND PROCEDURES

Objective

The counselor will discuss with the client alternative means for overcoming obstacles and achieving the client's goal.

The counselor will guide the client in adopting a guideline, if appropriate to the client's situation.

Procedures

A. Using the worksheet for step three disucss and list as many alternatives as would seem useful. The Counselor should let the client make his/her suggestions first, although they may come from both at about the same time.

B. If a general guideline seems relevant to your client's goal and obstacle adapt one for the client to use. Write the guideline on the worksheet.

STEP THREE: WORKSHEET

Name of Client: _____ Name of Counselor _____

1. Alternative Means for overcoming obstacles and accomplishing goals(s):

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. Client guideline for overcoming obstacles and accomplishing goal(s):

_____

_____

STEP FOUR

EVALUATING ALTERNATIVES

STEP 4

RANK ALTERNATIVES

A. PREDICT BENEFITS OF EACH ALTERNATIVE

B. PREDICT COSTS OF EACH ALTERNATIVE

C. COMPARE COSTS WITH BENEFITS FOR EACH

D. LIST ALTERNATIVES IN ORDER OF DESIRABILITY

STEP FOUR: CHOOSING AMONG ALTERNATIVES

For the Counselor and
the Client

Remember, we are defining a decision as the selection or choice of one alternative from a group of alternatives. In step four there must be two or more alternate courses of possible action for solving the problem. If there was only one course of action to take, then there would be no decision to make and you would simply take that action. In step three of our strategy, you clarified the decision situation by preparing a list of the possible alternatives.

In step four, it is presumed that the outcomes of these alternatives will depend upon the action taken. In order for the decision to be of any consequence, you must figure that the different actions will lead to different outcomes. So here you must anticipate the outcome of each course of action. In step four, you also consider the past experiences that would help with this decision. Past experiences can often contribute information useful in making wise decisions. The odds are better when the decision is based on the knowledge gained from these experiences.

There are several pssible ways to evaluate each alternative. Some of these ways are described here, others are not. You may wish to use your own method of comparing each alternative. Do whatever works for you. Decision trees have been used for helping persons visualize the consequences of different alternatives. An example of a decision tree is given in Figure 2. Benjamin Franklin had another method. When faced with a decision he would take a piece of paper, rule it down the center and over a period of a week or so simply jot down pluses and minuses on either side as they occured to him. When he had exhausted the list he would calculate subjectively which alternative would probably work best for him. The procedure provided in the Step Four Worksheet is another method for comparing alternatives. You may find it useful.

This should lead to the selection of one course of action to follow and this is what is involved in this procedure. Here, the person making the decision selects an appropriate course of action. After carefully considering each outcome, the probabilities and past experiences relevant to the situation, you make the decision. What decision would you make? What is the best course of action as you see it? These procedures in the decision-making strategy have been presented in a numerical order, however, they do not necessarily have to be considered in that same order. For example, it might be necessary to consider past experiences in order to estimate the consequences of each alternative, which is also Step Four. It is important, though, to insure that each procedure appears somewhere during the prcess.

The first part of this paper presented you with the rationale behind good decision-making. Remember now, the procedures are:

1. Refer to the list of alternative means on Step Three Worksheet
2. Imagine the consequences of each alternative
3. Consider the past experiences that have relevance to the problem
4. Evaluate the outcomes of each alternative in terms of some scale of desirability (Worksheet Four or your own system)
5. In the last procedure you select a course of action.

STEP FOUR: EVALUATING ALTERNATIVES

MATERIALS AND NOTES FOR THE COUNSELOR

Materials

Step Four Worksheet for optional use

Notes

Different persons have different tolerances for risk. Some persons always choose a 50/50 risk (chance of achieving their goal) represented by a balance between benefits and costs. Other persons may typically choose a higher or lower risk factor. Each client should be encouraged to choose what seems comfortable to them.

An increased willingness to take risk up to a 50/50 chance may occur as a person's self-confidence increases. The counselor who has the time may wish to help the client increase their self-confidence. However, increases in risk taking are not directly related to self-confidence, but instead have a curvilinear relationship (i.e. high self-confident persons take moderate risks).

COUNSELOR OBJECTIVE AND PROCEDURES

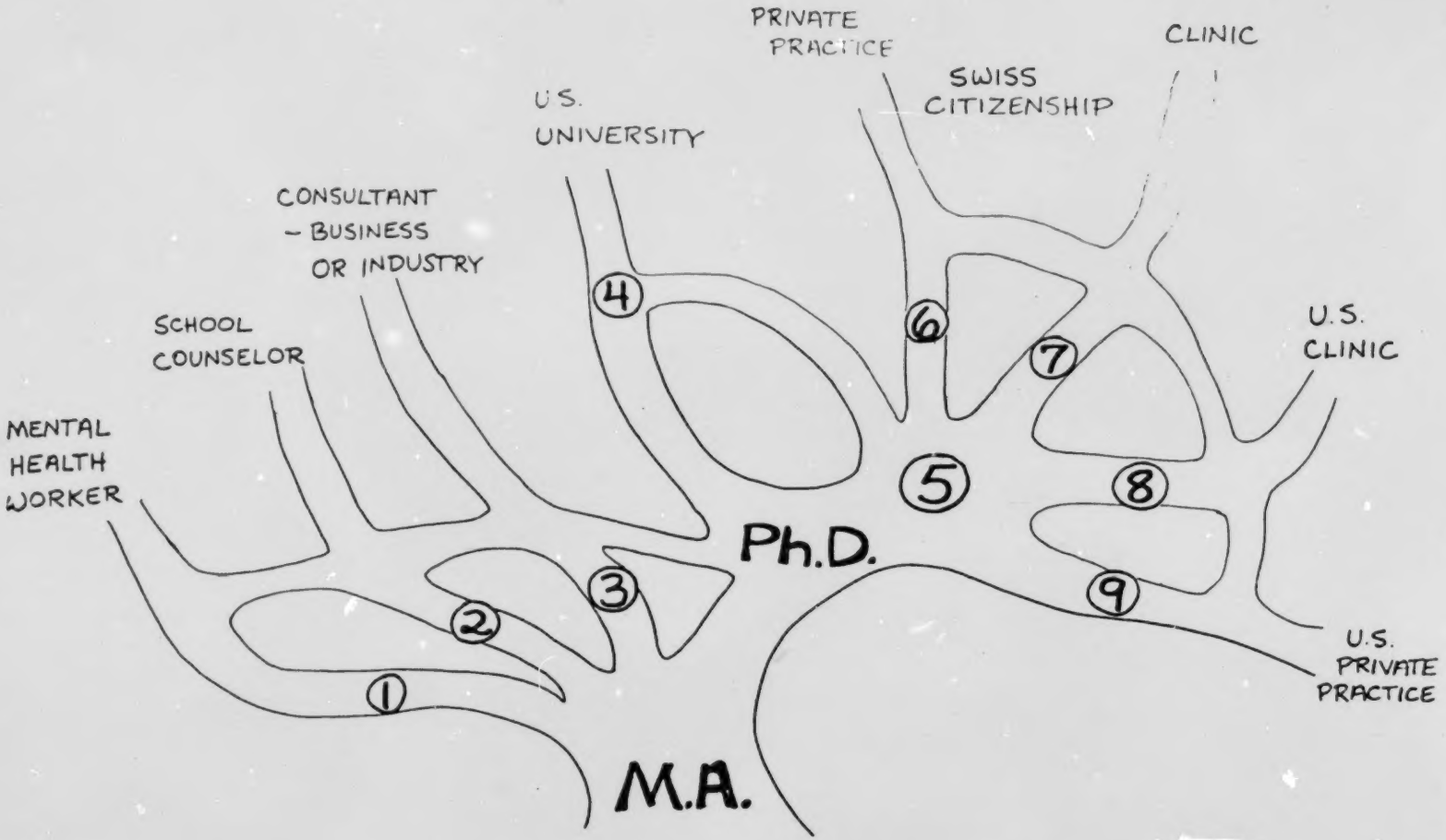
Objective

The counselor will guide each client in evaluating each alternative for the costs and benefits (positive and negative aspects) of using it. When each alternative has been evaluated the counselor will help the client select the alternative with the most benefits and least costs, consistent with that client's willingness to take risks.

Procedures

Methods for evaluating alternatives may be:

- client's own method
- decision tree
- Ben Franklin's method (see narrative)
- Step Four Worksheet



① MENTAL HEALTH WORKER
② SCHOOL COUNSELOR
③ PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSULTANT - BUSINESS OR INDUSTRY
④ AFFILIATED WITH U.S. UNIVERSITY
⑤ DIPLOMA, ZURICH JUNG INSTITUTE
⑥ SWISS PRIVATE PRACTICE - JUNGIAN ANALYST
⑦ SWISS CLINIC
⑧ U. S. CLINIC
⑨ U.S. PRIVATE PRACTICE - JUNGIAN ANALYST

Figure 2: An Example of a Decision Tree

STEP FOUR WORKSHEET

Alternative Being Evaluated: _____

Please read each question below and decide if your answer is:

'yes'	'probably yes'	'probably no'	'no'
4	3	2	1

Put the number corresponding to your answer in the space provided.

Then read the question again and decide how important it is to you. Using the following values place the one you choose in the space provided under the column headed IMPORTANCE.

very important	somewhat important	not very important	not important
4	3	2	1

IMPORTANCE	4	3	2	1	
__	_	_	_	_	a. Am I capable of doing it?
__	_	_	_	_	b. Are the necessary resources available to me?
__	_	_	_	_	c. Will using this alternative contribute to my longrange goal?
__	_	_	_	_	d. Will using this alternative achieve my current goal? Others ....

_____

_____ Total benefits

__	_	_	_	_	a. Will there be any negative consequences if I use this alternative?
__	_	_	_	_	b. Will it take a lot of time?
__	_	_	_	_	c. Will it take a lot of energy?
__	_	_	_	_	d. Will it cost a lot? (add others on the back if you wish)

_____

_____ Total costs

(Step Four: Worksheet Cont.)

Procedures for Scoring

A. Total the number of points for the BENEFIT of this alternative (items a.b.c.d.....).

B. Total the number of points for the COST of this alternative (items a.b.c.d.....).

C. Place cost/benefit ratio at the bottom of this sheet next to the alternative being evaluated.

D. Fill out a new Step Four Worksheet for each of the alternatives you have previously selected.

E. When you are finished evaluating each alternative separately compare the cost/benefit ratios for each alternative.

F. You are now ready to select the alternative with the most benefits for the cost involved. The ratio with the lowest value will be most beneficial to your goal.

		Cost/Benefit Ratio
Alternative #1	_____	_____
Alternative #2	_____	_____
Alternative #3	_____	_____
Alternative #4	_____	_____
Alternative #5	_____	_____
Alternative #6	_____	_____

_____ Your Name (Please Print)

_____ Counselor's Name (Please Print)

STEP FIVE

TRYOUT OUT ALTERNATIVES

GUIDED INQUIRY GROUP CAREER COUNSELING

STEP 5

TRYOUT ALTERNATIVES

A. WRITE FIRST ALTERNATIVE AS MEASURABLE OBJECTIVE

B. TRYOUT

C. COLLECT INFORMATION ON HOW WELL IT WORKED

STEP FIVE - TRYOUT OF ALTERNATIVES

One of the principles of effective teaching and counseling is to provide the client with feedback on how well he is doing. The client can collaborate in this effort by providing descriptive information on his tryouts and by setting standards of success for himself.

For example, Dave was a high school graduate who came to counseling because his sister wanted him to. He was not interested in working or going to college. Actually, he wanted to ride around the country on his motorcycle. As he worked with the counselor he recalled enjoying sketching in high school and together they explored the possibility of a career in commercial art. Dave was finally turned on to a career and he chose as a first step to send letters to three commercial art programs and request detailed information on financial aid and entrance requirements. He set his objective to obtain acceptance in a program that offered him sufficient financial aid to pay living expenses and tuition. He also set a standard for the program, that it be one that had a good track record in placing its graduates in jobs.

WHY EVALUATE? To the Client

To provide information on your progress and the effectiveness of the counseling procedures in helping you accomplish your career goals.

1. First, you must set a counseling goal that you want to accomplish and that you can support. This was Step 1 of the guided inquiry procedure.

2. Second, you must agree on how you will know the goal has been accomplished by working through Step 5 with your counselor and agreeing on a level of achievement which will satisfy you.

3. In the following step (6) you examine the information you have collected and make judgments about whether or not to revise your methods.

4. When your goal has been achieved at the level you said would be satisfactory, you will go back to Step 1 and select a new goal to work on that contributes to your longrange goal.

STEP FIVE: TRYING OUT ALTERNATIVES

MATERIALS AND NOTES FOR THE COUNSELOR

Materials

Step Five & Six Worksheet

Notes

The personal log has three columns headed: successful; partially successful; and unsuccessful. These categories are defined below.

Successful: The 'alternative' was achieved at the criterion level set by the client.

Partially successful: The 'alternative' was partially achieved, that is, the criterion level was not quite met, but there was progress toward the goal.

Unsuccessful: The alternative was not achieved and there is no indication that progress was made toward the goal.

COUNSELOR OBJECTIVE AND PROCEDURES

Objective

The counselor will help the client write his/her goal as a measurable objective and plan to keep a personal log on progress toward the goal.

Procedures

A. Guide the client in writing their objective in measurable terms (i.e. with an outcome statement, a level of achievement and a statement of the conditions of evaluation). Help the client decide on a level of achievement that is agreeable to her/him.

B. Discuss with the client the use of Step Five & Six Worksheet. The counselor may suggest that the client keep a small notebook with him/her to jot down notes which could later be transferred to the Worksheet. Alternatively, some clients may prefer to keep an informal 'log' of progress as a substitute for the Worksheet.

(Notes cont. 5 & 6)

SOME DEFINITIONS: MEASURABLE OBJECTIVES

GOALS: The term goal refers to a statement of broad direction or intent which is general and timeless and is not concerned with a particular achievement within a specified time period. Losing weight and going to college are examples of goals.

MEASURABLE OBJECTIVES: A precise statement of a goal toward which some resource is being invested. A prediction of some outcome that is to derive from the efforts of an individual, group of individuals, or an organization. States the outcome of the effort, the level of achievement of that outcome and the conditions of evaluations which are to be imposed at the time of measuring that outcome.

OUTCOME: That portion of an objective which clearly states the ultimate outcome or tangible benefit of some activity; (what is to be achieved).

LEVEL OF ACHIEVEMENT: That portion of an objective which specifies the standards or criteria against which the outcome will be measured; (how well is it to be achieved?)

CONDITION OF EVALUATION: That portion of an objective which describes the conditions to be held constant when determining whether the objective has (or has not) been achieved; (under what circumstances will it be achieved?)

STEP FIVE & SIX: WORKSHEET

Personal Log For Trying Out Alternatives

Goal

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

DATES:		UNSUCCESSFUL	PARTIALLY SUCCESSFUL	SUCCESSFUL EVIDENCE
DAY ONE				
DAY TWO				
DAY THREE				
DAY FOUR				
DAY FIVE				
DAY SIX				
DAY SEVEN				

STEP SIX

EVALUATING GOAL PROGRESS

STEP 6

EVALUATE GOAL PROGRESS

A. REVIEW INFORMATION ON EFFECTIVENESS OF TRYOUT

B. REVISE ALTERNATIVE AS NEEDED OR SELECT ANOTHER ALTERNATIVE

C. WHEN SUB-GOAL IS ACHIEVED GO BACK TO STEP ONE AND SELECT NEXT SUB-GOAL

STEP SIX: EVALUATING GOAL PROGRESS

Making progress checks is an important part of Guided Inquiry counseling. The client will do much of this step on his/her own. (S)he will know if the alternative is working for him/her based on the information being collected in the log. If it isn't working, (s)he will report that to the counselor and together a refinement or change in the tryout procedure can be made. Of course, the client may also make changes during the week on his/her own as well.

In the illustration presented in Step 5, Dave had decided to seek training for the career commercial artist. He returned to counseling with the information from of the three programs he had written to. Both met Dave's standards in terms of their track record for placing graduates of their program, and their financial aid policies. Dave agreed to send for application blanks. He returned to the counselor in six weeks with completed application blanks and checked out what he had written with the counselor. He mailed the application that day. Later he phoned the counselor to say that he had been invited to an interview at one institution and that he was going that afternoon. He phoned again, later, with excitement in his voice. He had been accepted in the program with financial support sufficient to cover his tuition and living expenses. The institution was less than eight miles from his sister's home where he was livi.g.

MATERIALS AND NOTES FOR THE COUNSELOR

Materials (supplementary - not for practice sessions)

An Example of a client who has completed the worksheets for all six steps.

An Exit questionnaire.

Notes

When a client returns to the counselor after some attempt to tryout some procedure (s)he may be one of several stages toward progress:

successful

partially successful

unsuccessful

The procedures for this step suggest you work differently with each of these stages. Read the section under procedures that matches your client's stage.

STEP SIX: EVALUATING GOAL PROGRESS

COUNSELOR OBJECTIVE AND PROCEDURES

Objective

The counselor will discuss the client's progress toward his/her goal, based on information in the 'log' and other information the client discloses. After discussion the counselor will help the client plan a next step to try out during the coming week.

Procedures

A. When the client was successful in tryout

If the client was successful in achieving his/her goal and counselor and client agree that more practice is not necessary then the counselor will direct the client's attention back to Step 1 and select a new goal related to the long range goal. The client will then 'recycle' through Steps 1...6 until client is satisfied and leaves counseling.

B. When the client was partially successful in tryout

If the client made a beginning at trying out the procedure but was only partly successful try to determine why some aspects worked and others didn't. Revise the procedure based on this analysis. Ask yourself "was this task easy enough for this client?" Could it be made simpler at first? Could this client benefit from rehearsing (roleplaying) the procedure with me first? Did I support his/her efforts? Is (s)he being supported in his/her efforts by important others in his/her environment (spouse; parents; boss; friend...). When you have some idea as to why the procedure was not entirely successful work with the client to refine the procedure to workable proportions.

C. When the client is unsuccessful in tryout

There are several possibilities here. One is that the client didn't try the procedure. Another is that the client tried and failed completely. These two are discussed below. You will probably think of others and add them to this outline.

If the client did not try the procedure try to determine if there were understandable reasons for this (i.e. the procedure was too difficult or inappropriate; the client was too timid...). Lack of confidence on the part of the client might suggest you try rehearsal. or even consider being his/her advocate and participating more actively in making the procedure work.

In situations where discrimination because of race, sex or age is a factor the advocate role may be appropriate.

If the client tried the procedure and was unsuccessful give try o determine why the procedure didn't work by asking similar questions to those above. In addition ask the client to describe what (s)he remembers happening just before and just after (s)he tried. Revise the procedure based on this information. Try to ensure support for the client in his/her environment in addition to your support. Some client's are able to think of ways to 'reward' themselves for trying out a difficult or onerous procedure.

An Example

Carol Share (not her real name) came for counseling when she was about to graduate from college. Carol was interesting because she was 58 years old and she was just graduating, with honors, with a major in Psychology. Carol wanted to be a social worker but she was afraid that her age would prevent her from being accepted into a graduate training program.

As her counselor, I was interested in obtaining some background information from Carol before directly addressing the problem presented by her age and graduate school admission. She was born during the first world war and grew up in northern Illinois. She only completed two years of college before getting married and raising a family. In her family the women tended to have more education than the men (her father, uncles and brothers). During her childraising period Carol also worked part-time in her husband's bookstore, and worked as a volunteer for the Red Cross, Community Chest and PTA. After her children were grown Carol decided to return to college and obtain training for a career which would be (as she put it) challenging and satisfying. She felt that a bachelor's degree would not give her access to the kind of work she wanted to do. She felt confidence in her ability as a leader and administrator, based on her volunteer work and she wanted to do graduate work that would gain her employment opportunities an an administrative role in a helping profession. Her current interest was the field of social work. On the following pages are Carol's completed Guided Inquiry counseling forms.

ENTRY QUESTIONNAIRE

1. What do you expect from this counseling? Help in thinking through ways of implementing my career goal.

2. What do you expect to accomplish in this group in relation to making a career-choice? Help in thinking through ways of implementing my career goal.

3. What school subjects do you enjoy most? Psychology and History

4. What school subjects do you enjoy least? Physics and Chemistry

5. What kinds of school work give you most difficulty? Science

6. What do you like to do in your spare time? Talk to people about their problems

7. What kind of full or part-time work have you done in the past? Sales girl in husband's store

8. What kind of work are you currently doing (if any)? None

9. If you could do ANYTHING you wanted as a career, what would you choose to do? Be a Social Worker

Carol Share
Your Name (Please Print)

Dennis Constant
Counselor's Name (Please Print)

STEP ONE: WORKSHEET

1. Long-range career goal: (5-10 years from now)

Employed as a social worker.

2. Specific short-range goals: (1-2 years from now)

Obtain an M.A. in Social Work.

3. Sub-goal selected for this semester: (quarter; or 2-4 month period)

Get accepted in an accredited School of Social Work.

4. Tasks needed to accomplish sub-goal in #3 above:

a. *Identify accredited Schools of Social Work.*

b. *Obtain information from these schools on entrance requirements.*

. *Apply to several schools where I qualify for entrance.*

.

z. *Be accepted in an accredited school.*

5. Task selected for semester following completion of STEP TWO:

Outcome: *Obtain sponsor to write a letter recommending me for acceptance in an accredited School of Social Work.*

Standard: *Who has demonstrated his ability to place otherwise qualifying students who were over the current age requirement.*

Condition: *Within the next three months.*

Carol Share
Your Name (Please Print)

Dennis Constant
Counselor's Name (Please Print)

STEP TWO: WORKSHEET

Identifying Obstacles to My Sub-Goal

My Sub-goal is: *To get accepted in an accredited School of Social Work.*

1. Do I need information to accomplish my sub-goal? ✓ yes ____ no
   If yes, list your information needs: *I need a list of accredited schools. I need to know their entrance requirements.*

2. Do I need any additional skills to accomplish my sub-goal? ____ yes
   ✓ no. If yes, list the skills needed: ____

3. Do I have enough interest in accomplishing this sub-goal to put out the effort to accomplish it? ✓ yes ____ no.

4. Do I have the potential ability to learn the skills needed to accomplish this sub-goal (if skills were listed in #2 above)? ✓ yes ____ no.

5. Do I have the money to accomplish this sub-goal? ✓ yes ____ no.

6. Do I have the time to accomplish this sub-goal? ✓ yes ____ no.

7. Do I have enough confidence in myself to accomplish this sub-goal?
   ✓ yes ____ no.

8. Are there other obstacles to accomplishing this sub-goal?
   Yes, I am 58 years old and I know at least one accredited school that only accepts students 40 years old and younger.

On the next page summarize your list of obstacles to achieving your sub-goal.

STEP TWO

Summary List of Obstacles To My Sub-Goal

Sub-goal: *Get accepted in an accredited School of Social Work.*

1. *I am 58 years old and I hear that most accredited Schools have a policy of not accepting anyone over 40 years old.*

2. *I need a list of accredited schools. I need to know their entrance requirements.*

3.

4.

5.

STEP THREE: WORKSHEET

Name: Carol Shaře Name of Counselor: Dennis Constant

1. Student "Rule" for overcoming obstacles to First Task, in order to accomplish First Task:

Affirmative Action plan requirements for non-discrimination in academic entrance requirements because of sex...justify my attempts to seek an exception to my age.

2. Alternative Methods for overcoming obstacles to First Task, and accomplishing First Task:

a. Ask a professor I have worked with, whom I know to have successfully sponsored older women's career goals, to act on my behalf.

b. Go to the local Center or Association for the Continuing Education of Women and ask them to recommend someone to act on my behalf.

c. Ask a professor known to champion women's rights, but whom I have never previously met, to act on my behalf.

Alternative Means #a: Ask a professor I have worked with, whom I know to have successfully sponsored older women's career goals, to act on my behalf.

STEP FOUR: WORKSHEET

Select an alternative from your list to evaluate.

Please read each question presented below and decide if your answer is:

yes	probably yes	don't know	probably no	no
5	4	3	2	1

Then put the number corresponding to your answer in the space provided to the left of each question.

5 4 3 2 1

Benefits (+)

5 _ _ _ _ 1. Can I do it, given the necessary resources?

_ 4 _ _ _ 2. Are the necessary resources available to me?

_ _ 3 _ _ 3. Will using this alternative contribute to my long-range career goal?

_ _ _ _ _ 4. If your answer to #3 was '4' or '5', will the contribution be significant?

5 _ _ _ _ 5. Will using this alternative achieve my current sub-task related to my long range career goal?

_ _ 3 _ _ 6. If your answer to #5 was '4' or '5', will your goal be effectively accomplished?

Costs (-)

_ _ _ 2 _ 7. Will there be any negative consequences if I fail to accomplish my sub-goal using this alternative?

_ _ _ _ 1 8. Will it cost a lot to use this alternative?

_ _ _ 2 _ 9. Will it take a lot of time?

_ _ 3 _ _ 10. Will it be frustrating?

_ _ 3 _ _ 11. Will it take a lot of energy?

_ _ _ 2 _ 12. Will there be any negative consequences by using this alternative in terms of my basic values, interests or skills?

Carol Share
Your Name (Please Print)

Dennis Constant
Counselor's Name (Please Print)

$\frac{B}{C} = \frac{20}{13}$

Alternative Means #6: Go to local center or Association for the Continuing Education of Women and ask them to recommend someone to act on my behalf.

STEP FOUR: WORKSHEET

Select an alternative from your list to evaluate.

Please read each question presented below and decide if your answer is:

yes	probably yes	don't know	probably no	no
5	4	3	2	1

Then put the number corresponding to your answer in the space provided to the left of each question.

5 4 3 2 1

Benefits (+)

5 1. Can I do it, given the necessary resources?

5 2. Are the necessary resources available to me?

3 3. Will using this alternative contribute to my long-range career goal?

4. If your answer to #3 was '4' or '5', will the contribution be significant?

3 5. Will using this alternative achieve my current sub-task related to my long range career goal?

6. If your answer to #5 was '4' or '5', will your goal be effectively accomplished?

Costs (-)

2 7. Will there be any negative consequences if I fail to accomplish my sub-goal using this alternative?

1 8. Will it cost a lot to use this alternative?

3 9. Will it take a lot of time?

3 10. Will it be frustrating?

3 11. Will it take a lot of energy?

1 12. Will there be any negative consequences by using this alternative in terms of my basic values, interests or skills?

Your Name (Please Print)

Counselor's Name (Please Print)

B/C = 16/13

Alternative Means #c: *Ask a professor known to champion women's rights, whom I have never met, to act on my behalf.*

STEP FOUR: WORKSHEET

Select an alternative from your list to evaluate.

Please read each question presented below and decide if your answer is:

yes	probably yes	don't know	probably no	no
5	4	3	2	1

Then put the number corresponding to your answer in the space provided to the left of each question.

	5 4 3 2 1		
Benefits (+)	5 _ _ _ _	1.	Can I do it, given the necessary resources?
	5 _ _ _ _	2.	Are the necessary resources available to me?
	_ _ 3 _ _	3.	Will using this alternative contribute to my long-range career goal?
	_ _ _ _ _	4.	If your answer to #3 was '4' or '5', will the contribution be significant?
	_ _ 3 _ _	5.	Will using this alternative achieve my current sub-task related to my long range career goal?
	_ _ _ _ _	6.	If your answer to #5 was '4' or '5', will your goal be effectively accomplished?
Costs (-)	_ _ _ _ _	7.	Will there be any negative consequences if I fail to accomplish my sub-goal using this alternative?
	_ _ _ _ 1	8.	Will it cost a lot to use this alternative?
	_ _ 3 _ _	9.	Will it take a lot of time?
	_ _ 3 _ _	10.	Will it be frustrating?
	_ _ 3 _ _	11.	Will it take a lot of energy?
	_ _ _ _ 1	12.	Will there be any negative consequences by using this alternative in terms of my basic values, interests or skills?

Carol Share
Your Name (Please Print)

Dennis Constant
Counselor's Name (Please Print)

$\frac{B}{C} = \frac{16}{11}$

(Step Four: Worksheet Cont.)

Procedures for Scoring

A. Total the number of points for the BENEFIT of this alternative (items 1, 2, 3, 4, 4, 6).

B. Total the number of points for the COST of this alternative (items 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12).

C. Place cost/benefit ratio at the bottom of this sheet next to the alternative being evaluated.

D. Fill out a new Step Four Worksheet for each of the alternatives you have previously selected.

E. When you are finished evaluating each alternative separately compare the cost/benefit ratios for each alternative.

F. You are now ready to select the alternative with the most benefits for the cost involved. The ratio with the lowest value will be most beneficial to your goal.

		Cost/Benefit Ratio
Alternative #1	a.	20/13
Alternative #2	b.	16/13
Alternative #3	c.	16/11
Alternative #4		
Alternative #5		
Alternative #6		

Carol Share
Your Name (Please Print)

Dennis Constant
Counselor's Name (Please Print)

STEP FIVE & SIX: WORKSHEET

Personal Log for Trying Out Alternatives

Sub-goal: Outcome *obtain sponsor and get to write letter* standard *from previously successful professor* condition *within 3 months*

Student Rule: *Affirmative Action plan requirements for non-discrimination in academic entrance requirements because of sex...justify my attempts to seek an exception to my age.*

Alternative to be tried out: *Ask a professor I have worked with, whom I know to have successfully sponsored older women's career goals to act on my behalf.*

DATES:	UNSCUCCESSFUL	PARTIALLY SUCCESSFUL	SUCCESSFUL EVIDENCE
DAY ONE:	*Made appointment to see Professor Rare*		
DAY TWO			
DAY THREE	*Met Professor Rare and he agreed to write a letter for me to University*		
DAY FOUR			
DAY FIVE			
DAY SIX			*Received copy of letter in mail that Professor Rare sent to University.*
DAY SEVEN			

EXIT QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Did this counseling group meet your expectations? Yes

2. If your answer was 'no' please comment on what could have been done differently. _____

3. Were you able to accomplish your specific career goal during this counseling period? Yes

4. What are your plans, if any, for taking a next step in the direction of accomplishing your long-range career goal? _____
To attend School of Social Work in the Fall and earn an M.S. degree

5. At the end of this group counseling experience are you any clearer than you were when it began about which career you would like to follow? ____
No

6. Did you change your mind during this counseling experience about which career you would like to follow most? No

7. What kind of group career counseling would be most helpful to you next semester, if you were to be part of such a group? _____
I would only be interested in career counseling if I find other students at the School of Social Work do not accept me because of my age.

8. Would you like to be part of a group career counseling experience next semester? Unlikely

CLIENT EXIT QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Did this counseling meet your expectations? _____

2. If your answer was 'no' please comment on what could have been done differently. _____

3. Were you able to accomplish your specific career goal during this counseling period? _____

4. What are your plans, if any, for taking a next step in the direction of accomplishing your long-range career goal? _____

5. At the end of this counseling experience are you any clearer than you were when it began about which career you would like to follow? _____

6. Did you change your mind during this counseling experience about which career you would like to follow most? _____

7. What kind of career counseling would be most helpful to you? _____

8. Would you like to be part of a group career counseling experience? _____

Guided Inquiry Counseling Workshop

Evaluation Form

1. What was the most valuable part of this workshop for you?

2. What was the least valuable part of this workshop for you?

3. What suggestions do you have for improving the following aspects of this workshop?

   the Introduction

   practice sessions

   materials

   other aspects

4. What is your reaction to Guided Inquiry counseling?

5. Which of the Guided Inquiry counseling procedures seem most relevant to your clients' needs?

6. What kind of counseling do you do (e.g., career, personal, school)?

7. Please rate this workshop on a scale of 1 to 10, with 1 being "This workshop was worthless" and 10 being "This workshop was enjoyable and valuable."

Please use the reverse side of this form for any additional comments you want to make. Thank you.

SEMINAR IV

Educational/Occupational Counseling
with Adult Clients
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SEMINAR V MATERIAL

Supportive Services for Adult Clients

Dr. Frank DiSilvestro, Consultant
Division of Pupil Personnel Services
Indiana State Department of Education
Adjunct Professor, Department of Adult Education,
Indiana University, Bloomington
Seminar in Adult Counseling

AGENCY SETTINGS FOR CAREER GUIDANCE

by

Donn E. Brolin

(Donn E. Brolin is Director of the Undergraduate Programs in Rehabilitation Services Education at the University of Missouri--Columbia and Director of Project PRICE.)

Considerable need exists for community agencies to render quality career guidance services to a large portion of our population. Although many such programs do exist and are evolving around the country, the need for many more is evident. This article contains a review of some of the current career guidance agencies and services, recommendations for some needed changes, and suggestions for a more competency-based orientation by agency personnel.

CAREER GUIDANCE AGENCIES

Career guidance agencies are lodged primarily in manpower, rehabilitation, and public and private social service agencies, although business and industry are also moving more into this important area.

MANPOWER AGENCIES

In recent years special career guidance programs have evolved in state employment agencies--programs in basic education, classroom and/or trade training, training in job seeking skills, career exploration, paid on-the-job training, and specialized job placement assistance. These services have grown out of the needs of welfare clients and other disadvantaged persons, including youth, correctional inmates, and armed forces personnel. The Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA), the Work Incentive Program (WIN), the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP), Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS), and the Job Corps are programs that were created to meet special needs.

The agency also offers labor information, job banks, programs for handicapped and older workers, youth services, minority group programs, veterans' services, and other career guidance services. The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) of 1973 has substituted a decentralized and decategorized program so that local needs can be better met by agency services.

REHABILITATION AGENCIES

Traditionally rehabilitation agencies provide services to individuals who have a variety of physical, emotional, intellectual, sensory, and behavioral handicaps that prevent them from being assimilated into the labor market. The state

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vocational rehabilitation agency, due to large case loads and travel responsibilities, cannot always offer intensive career guidance. Its counselors therefore often depend on rehabilitation facilities (workshops) and rehabilitation centers to assist them in more extensive career guidance activities. Such facilities offer a work environment in which clients can learn about industrial work requirements, work habits, work skills, and work behaviors and can explore different jobs while receiving career guidance. Two such agencies are described below.

Vocational Counseling and Rehabilitation Services, in St. Louis, Missouri, offers two types of services to urban clients: (a) career guidance for any adult having problems clarifying educational goals, work abilities, or other job possibilities and (b) rehabilitation services, including comprehensive work evaluation, social security disability determinations, personal adjustment training, training for job seeking skills, and job placement. In the first case, vocational counselors test and counsel self-referred or agency-referred individuals about occupational possibilities. Individuals receiving the second service obtain remunerative work training in a realistic production setting operating under accepted business standards. The agency also offers a small-scale homebound work program for individuals capable of performing work but physically unable to leave the home situation; classes for clients who, despite adequate intellectual skills, need basic academic instruction to qualify for possible jobs; and family counseling, although the agency recognizes that even more emphasis is needed in this area.

Portal Programs, Inc., in Grafton, Wisconsin, has evolved from a small work activity center for severely retarded persons to a comprehensive county service for those with all types of handicaps, from mild to severe. All trainees, no matter how low their productivity, are guaranteed 50 cents an hour and receive more if their work warrants it. With this remunerative opportunity and a businesslike but accepting environment, often the agency's main problem is convincing those who have competitive employment potential to leave after they have acquired the necessary skills. The agency also offers basic living skills and academic instruction for those needing them. Mental health, special education, vocational education, and other programs cooperate closely with the agency's delivery of services and often send their own personnel to work intensively with Portal's staff. A summer program for handicapped public school youth has been a tremendous success, giving these youngsters an opportunity to learn about the world of work, develop vocational skills, and make money, rather than remaining home for the summer with nothing to do. This agency exemplifies what can be done in a small community if agencies, the community, and parents join together to better meet the career development needs of its citizens.

SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCIES

Several social service agencies have become more active in providing career guidance to individuals. For example, counseling services are springing up for ex-offenders, alcoholics, drug addicts, and ex-mental patients to prevent the reoccurrence of their problems. Probation and parole agencies, courts, departments of corrections, mental health centers, halfway houses, and private agencies have established special programs for their clientele. Positive peer culture and other group techniques have gained considerable favor in recent years. The involvement of the entire family in career guidance problems is also receiving more attention.

An example of a dynamic program is that of the Roanoke (Virginia) Social Service Bureau for public assistance recipients, called the Job Orientation and Motivation Project (JOMP). The program, designed to help these individuals gain confidence and find jobs, uses group counseling to focus on the main obstacles to their employment. As a result of this program, the service worker is no longer being seen as a "fire fighter" but as a facilitator who uses "new-found goal-oriented vocational guidance tools and group dynamics expertise" (Frank & Martin 1974, p. 8). This clear-cut role has helped the professional worker by improving his or her job satisfaction through the elucidation of an identity, and it has helped the employer by providing better and more satisfied workers.

An innovative project is being conducted at the University of Arizona under the University Year for Action Program of the federal agency ACTION. ACTION brings togehter VISTA, the Peace Corps, SCORE, ACE, Foster Grandparents, and several other federal volunteer programs. College students sign up as VISTA volunteers for one year as part of their graduate program. Students work in a variety of areas--adult and juvenile corrections, alcoholism counseling, drug counseling, rehabilitation counseling, health and social services for Indians, and youth counseling with unwed mothers. Students assume many career guidance activities that agency staff members never seem to have enough time to do, particularly job development, job placement, and follow-up counseling. Thus they provide valuable career guidance services while gaining extensive field experience during their college training.

IMPROVING AGENCY SERVICES

Fortunately, hands-on experiences are being recognized and practiced as a more viable method of career guidance for many individuals than the traditional method of verbal interchange and paper-and-pencil testing. Although slow to evolve in many agencies, there is occurring more use of instructional packages, modules, job tryouts, and audio-visual techniques. Career guidance systems such as the JEVS Work Samples (developed at Philadelphia's Jewish Employment and Vocational Service), the Vocational Evaluation System, the Job Survival Skills Package, the Career Awareness Laboratory (CAL), and a new life skills program are emerging products. Despite the improvements that have resulted from the efforts of many agencies, much remains to be done. Here are some recommendations.

1. Agency personnel should help educational insitutions rejuvenate and inject the educational system with a career development orientation, providing numerous educational offerings to meet the diverse learning styles and needs of students (rather than forcing them to fit into the system). It is important to initiate career guidance and development in the early years so it becomes infused throughout the educational system. It would be valuable for schools to secure more involvement with community agencies. This becomes especially important with the movement to mainstream special education students into regular classes.

2. Agency personnel should educate noneducational agencies about career education: what it is, how they can contribute to it, and how they can coordinate their efforts with each other and the educational system. Relevant and collaborative relationships between the school and the community agencies would enable this goal to be achieved.

3. Agency personnel should systematically identify those competencies individuals need in order to function successfully in the kind of environments in which they will be living and working. The contributions of schools and other agencies need to be specified to assure a continuum of career development services at the various stages of each individual's lifetime.

4. Agency personnel should effectively use different kinds of personnel so that those individuals with no college training can assist professional workers in the delivery of career guidance services. Volunteers, people in business and industry, and parents should be called on in these efforts.

5. Agency personnel should justify a program's efficacy by requiring the program's staff to define program objectives operationally, to specify how each of these objectives will be met and evaluated, and to measure the extent to which each of these objectives has been achieved. Agency workers need to spend most of their time on actual career guidance activities, not in shuffling papers and reporting esoteric figures to justify their existence.

6. Agency personnel should designate an existing agency in each large community and district (such as the Employment Service) to serve as a fixed point of referral for career guidance services. Carlucci (1974) has pointed out that we lack one good human service network to bring together the hundreds of narrowly based health, education, welfare, and manpower programs operating in virtual isolation from one another. He reported that 9 out of 10 people need several kinds of service rather than just one kind.

COMPETENCY-BASED SERVICES

Agencies need to become more concerned with the total individual than with crisis counseling. Agency personnel as well as educators should provide career guidance and development services that teach skills in daily living, personal-social skills, and occupational skills. Elsewhere (Brolin 1974) I have identified 22 competencies in these three areas as being absolutely essential for educable mentally retarded persons if they are to secure a satisfactory and satisfying level of vocational and community adjustment. The competencies and their respective areas are presented below.

Skills in daily living include: managing family finances; caring for home furnishings and equipment; caring for personal needs; raising children and living with family; buying, planning, and preparing food; selecting, buying, and making clothing; engaging in civic activities; utilizing recreation and leisure time; and getting around the community. Attainment of these nine competencies will enable individuals to manage a home, a family, finances, and themselves.

Personal-social skills include: attaining self-awareness and appraisal; acquiring self-confidence and a positive self-concept; achieving socially responsible behavior; developing and maintaining appropriate interpersonal relationships; achieving independence; making good decisions and solving problems; and communicating appropriately with others. Attainment of these seven competencies will enable individuals to learn those personal and interpersonal skills so vital to vocational and community functioning.

Occupational skills include: knowing about and exploring occupations; selecting and planning appropriate occupational choices; developing appropriate work behaviors; developing physical and manual skills; acquiring a specific job skill; and seeking, securing, and maintaining appropriate employment. Attainment of these six competencies will enable individuals to obtain employment commensurate with their abilities, interests, and needs.

CONCLUSION

Career guidance agencies can make a significant contribution by identifying special needs and assisting clients in moving toward occupations that will meet those needs. A primary need of many is to build self-confidence so that they believe they can be successful. Too many job failures result from job dissatisfaction due to a worker's having received poor guidance or having grabbed anything that was available.

Hundreds of exemplary programs and thousands of dedicated individuals are contributing to the improvement of career guidance in agency settings, but there is a need to make these educational, social, and vocational programs more coordinated, more responsive, and more relevant to a great number of people, no matter how limited or how brilliant they might be.

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THE ADULT LEARNER: COMMUNITY RESOURCES AND SUPPORTIVE SERVICES

(Adopted from Maryland State Department of Education)

Adult education is life-centered. The Adult Counselor needs to examine the full range of supportive services available in the community in order to plan and implement a program that meets the immediate needs of the learners.

INTRODUCTION

A life-centered curriculum in Adult Education should consider a fourth "r" in the basic skills; that is, relevance. Relevance should come from using the resources--both human and nonhuman--that meet the needs of the learners. The responsibility of the adult instructor and counselor is to review, locate, and assemble the proper resources applicable to individual or group problems. The pacing of the material or the ability of the speaker to relate to the adult learner may be the most important consideration in using resources.

Two important tasks in pacing are (1) building awareness and (2) maintaining the proper attitude.

Building Awareness

Adult learners prefer learning in short periods of time, and they will resist any change from their existing style of living, belief, or mode of operation. Pushing resources too hard may cause more resistance. Resources should be introduced slowly or when problems or interests dictate their use.

Maintaining the Proper Attitude

Before slecting the resource speakers to be used, the Adult Counselor or instructor should establish the climate with the learners that encourages them to discuss problems arising from their daily life roles as wage earners, homemakers, and citizens. Sound procedures of curriculum planning require a variety of both materials and available resources. The resources must vary, just as the program must be flexible to meet individual and group needs.

The instructor's role is that of facilitator, manager, or coordinator of the learning experiences. If the instructor's goal is to help the learners help themselves, then the learner needs to be encouraged to seek out and use the full range of supportive services available in the community.

A study or comprehensive directory of one's community should analyze the work of agencies and institutions and the supportive services provided by each one. The adult instructor needs to view such a study in light of two purposes: (1) a resource for planning learning activities and (2) a referral for getting agency assistance.

Means for Defining Learners' Everyday Needs

Find collective concerns: Instructors should check to see if individuals have special problems that are commonly overlooked among adult learners. Examples: rat eradication services in the community, landlord obligations, eviction notices, and medicaid benefits for members of families with dependent children.

Watch for nonverbal clues: Health problems are often ignored by low-income people who are accustomed to illness and pain. Instructors can look for nonverbal signs, such as persistent cough, a limp, chronic anxiety, squinting, inadequate dental care, or signs of a fever.

Watch for changes in behavior: Unresponsiveness or inability to grasp simple concepts by alert learners usually connotes a concurrent problem brought to the learning experience.

Activities for Using Supportive Services

Tap community resources for additional input. It requires much planning before the presentation to explain what topics need to be covered, to whom the material will be presented, how the presentation should be shaped, and why the contribution to the class is important.

Assign resourceful paraprofessionals or volunteers in the adult program to work directly in planning. Following are some activities that can be assigned.

- Making contacts for speakers.
- Scheduling field trips to an agency or service institution.
- Writing for materials an agency offers, such as kits, applications, forms, or brochures.
- Filling out sample forms, interpreting general instructions, completing an application, or typing a ditto master.

Human Services Offered by Community Resources

Adult counselors should be aware of their responsibility to present information clearly by describing any assistance available for people with problems. They need to know how to introduce the services of community resources as well as the places where these services are offered.

Ways of Introducing Resources

Be objective. Introduce any agency or service in a nonthreatening, problem-solving context. Point out facts and give examples of the problems which some people have which require support services.

Explore misconceptions about agencies. Representatives of agencies may be asked to give the reasons some people fear them and some people do not want their services. The class can then emphasize the positive values of agencies.

Plan with the adult learners some general suggestions for contacting speakers, including some arrangement for meeting the speaker or panel members before beginning of class.

Organize an agency checklist or record in an instructor's resource file including information gained (positive or negative) from experiences with various community resources. This method allows only the most effective speakers to be kept for future reference.

Some Types of Services Offered by Agencies

League of Women Voters: Guides on voting.

Library: Demonstrations, parent talks, films, guided tours of facilities, and free loan of library books and materials.

Department of Health: Family planning, prenatal clinics, X-ray clinics, alcoholism clinics, drug abuse, mental health centers, and medical assistance.

Department of Social Services: Single parent counseling, legal aid to those in the Medical Assistance Program, consumer protection, adoption services, help in reporting housing complaints, family day care, group day care, public assistance, food stamps plan, emergency assistance, protective services for children, services to elderly, and homemaker services during crisis situations.

Department of Vocational Rehabilitation: Services to individuals with a permanent disability which constitutes a vocational handicap. Available services include diagnostic medical, psychiatric, and psychological examinations; vocational diagnosis and counseling; appropriate vocational job training and placement; job follow-up; services to family members; reader services for the blind; interpreter services for the deaf; tools, equipment, and work licenses.

Department of Employment Security: This agency usually consists of two divisions. The main function of the Employment Service Division is to act as a clearinghouse for workers, job openings, and supporting services on the job training. The main function of the Unemployment Insurance Division is concerned with the payment of unemployment benefits to eligible persons and the collection of Employer Contributions to the Unemployment Insurance Fund.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

Activity 1: Developing Cooperative Relationships with Community Resources

Extend an invitation to a representative of one type of community resource to speak to the class about the development of a lesson. Examples: A realtor to speak on where to look and what to look for in renting an apartment; a family service aide to speak on locating day care facilities; a Consumer Protection aide to narrate a visual presentation on comparative shopping; a Department of Social Services worker to speak about meeting crisis situations.

Activity 2: Planning a Field Trip

Use a special planning group of adult learners to decide places they would like to visit to acquaint themselves with a particular community resource. Examples: A visit to the library facilities, the city council, the Social Security office.

Activity 3: Making a Resource Guide Sheet

Develop your own resource guide sheet on a life-coping skill. Example: Health and safety practices.

Activity 4: Developing a Gripe Sheet

Refer to the March 1970 Changing Times issue and summarize data on "Got a Gripe? Here's Where to Complain."

Activity 5: Making Your Own List of Other Supportive Services

Develop a one-page guide sheet entitled, "Whom to Call...When in _____ County." Note your existing county emergency number listings. Use the telephone book, a newspaper listing, or a resource handbook.

ADDITIONAL CONTENT

Following is a lesson plan which could be used to develop a practical concept of Workmen's Compensation services. Materials used were selected from the resource planning work sheet which is partially developed for the instructor's use.

Lesson Plan on Workmen's Compensation Services

CONCEPT: Employees should exercise their right to Workmen's Compensation Services when needed.

PURPOSE: To acquaint adult learners with the means for receiving Workmen's Compensation benefits when needed.

BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES: After completing this unit, this learner will

- Identify eight rules and procedures for receiving Workmen's Compensation benefits.
- Identify from a group of cases the reasons the claimants were or were not eligible for benefits.
- State the name and address of the persons to contact in regard to Workmen's Compensation.

TEACHER PREPARATION: Workmen's Compensation Commission

1. Prepare a fact sheet on the origin, purpose, and functions of the agency.
2. Prepare a rules sheet listing procedure for eligibility.
3. Locate actual case studies on problems with the agency, adapt the studies for class use, (with questions and activities) and record them on tape cassettes.

4. Plan a field trip to a court session on a case.

ACTIVITIES:

1. Using the fact sheet, discuss what Workmen's Compensation is.
2. Using the rules sheet and sample case, analyze the eligibility of a case.
3. Plan a listening station for further case studies.
4. Plan a field trip to Workmen's Compensation court sessions and discuss the outcome.
5. Complete a sample application for a claim.

MATERIALS USED:

1. Handouts
2. Cassette tapes and recorder
3. Case studies
4. Sample blank applications for claims
5. Map to courtroom
6. The Claims Game - see bibliogrphy. (Sherbourne Press, Inc.)
7. State Manual (Maryland 1969-70, p. 209)
8. Workmen's Compensation Law (Maryland 1971)

EVALUATION:

1. Score 80 percent (or any other predetermined standard) on a quiz relating to the steps in receiving benefits.
2. Answer questions to sample cases with 80 percent accuracy (or according to any other predetermined standard).
3. Define the meaning of common terms.
4. Fill out an exemption claim.
5. Identify the address of the agency.

QUESTIONS:

Motivation Question: Suppose you were hurt on your job and had to be out of work for a month and you do not have adequate health insurance to support yourself and your family during this time. Where can you turn for help?

Purpose Question: Why should you keep an accurate record of the accident?

Structure Question: To receive benefits from Workmen's Compensation Commission, what steps or procedures must you follow?

Summary Questions: How does an employee make a claim for benefits when he is hurt on the job?

Resource Planning Work Sheet. The following is a resource guide sheet for an instructor's file on occupational concepts.

RESOURCE GUIDE SHEET FOR OCCUPATIONAL CONCEPTS

Person to Contact, Address, Phone	Reource Used
_____	State Employment Service
_____	Small Business Administration
_____	Telephone Company
_____	Power and Light Company
_____	Vocational Rehabilitation
_____	Unemployment Insurance Division
_____	Veterans Employment Representative
_____	Cooperative Extension
_____	CAMPS Council
_____	Bureau of Apprenticeship
_____	Community College (Counselor)
_____	Insurance Agency
_____	Workmen's Compensation Commission
_____	Local Courthouse for Court Case on Workmen's Compensation
_____	Community Advisory Council
_____	Chamber of Commerce
_____	Library

Materials for Instruction: (Included in bibliography)

FILMSTRIPS: I Want to Be (Controlled Reader, EDL); Finding Work (Nelson C. White Ideal Pictures); Keeping a Job (Nelson C. White, Ideal Pictures)

FIELD TRIPS: Local Business and Industries

_____

_____

EXHIBITS: County Job Fair _____
Place and Date

CONTINUING EDUCATION:
THE OLDER, WISER STUDENT

by

Janet Riddell and Sam Bingham

(Former Boston reporters who currently
teach both children and adults at a
community-run school on the Navajo
Reservation in the Southwest.)

During the winter of 1972, a group of 20 women from Boston's inner city sat down with a tape recorder and began to talk intimately about their lives--about growing up poor in big cities or in the rural South; about leaving school to get married or take jobs; about working at home, in a factory, as a shoe stitcher, a telephone operator, a community organizer, and much more. Finally they told why, in their present lives, they had decided to return to school. For, despite the variety of their lives, despite ages ranging from the early twenties to the grandmotherly sixties, all shared a common goal: to get a college degree after years spent away from any classroom.

In fact, some of them had already shared many problems and discoveries. The previous year, six of the women had come together, attracted by a new program devised by administrators at Tufts University for older students--primarily poor and minority women. But even that program, for all its goodwill, failed to anticipate the full range of the women's special problems and failed to appreciate their special advantages. So the six women banded together in an effort to tailor the Tufts program to the needs of their real lives--and in that process, they discovered their common bonds and resources as a group. It took considerable time, experience, and mutual support for them to realize that they should not feel like beggars; that a campus had a positive obligation to accommodate them; and, more important, that the presence of older students could and should benefit teachers and more conventional students alike.

It was to share these hard-earned lessons of survival with other women, as well as with each other, that they invited 14 older-women students from other schools in the Boston area. Over a period of several months, they met and talked, gradually evolving the lessons they were to incorporate into a 160-page paper called "The Boston Study on Higher Education for Urban Women."

The study had begun when the women in the Tufts program encouraged the director to apply for funding so that they could help other women returning to school by writing down their experience and recommendations. The administration went ahead and wrote a proposal calling for a paid "professional" researcher to assist each of the women. But the students, who were for the most part black, had gone to college explicitly so they wouldn't have to play second fiddle to "experts" any more. They had seen such professionals do academic studies of the ghetto in ways that smacked of exploitation by outsiders. They rebelled, fired all but one of the professionals, and designed their own plan. The 20 women did expand their group to include an English teacher they felt had particular success in remedial courses, and the original director of the Tufts program, as well as one other administrator.

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The study group itself has emerged as a unique model of the role women can play in defining their own needs and controlling the quality of their education. "The Boston Study" is one of the first of its kind to analyze and present the case of the woman in higher education from a truly grass-roots point of view. Its insights and recommendations are of immediate practical value to all older women who are returning to school, and to the schools interested in developing programs for them.

CREDIT FOR LIFE EXPERIENCE

In the process of analyzing their experience, the group realized that along with the problems there were distinct academic advantages of being an adult, inner-city woman. They felt that institutions in general branded them unfairly as being somehow afflicted simply because they did not fit comfortably into programs designed for young, single, middleclass people.

Their advantages, they felt, came largely from intense experiences in coping with the real world. Many of them had borne heavy responsibility for the lives of others; for younger brothers and sisters, and crippled or aging relatives. Parenthood had brought even more responsibility. Their vast work experience, much of it concerned with community issues such as housing and health care, gave them a unique knowledge of urban problems, and skills in organizing and public speaking as well. They felt these were assets that educators ought to recognize and build on.

Convinced of what they had to offer, they demanded some major reforms in the philosophy of college education; a change in the whole custom of getting professional credentials only through a set string of courses leading up to a liberal arts degree. They urged their own schools and others to grant credit for work and life experience, to devise examinations to arrive at such credit, and to cut out nonessential course requirements.

In so doing, the women placed themselves in the forefront of educational innovation--and helped their own colleges to do the same.

Giving academic credit for life and work experience, as the Boston women recommend, is part of an important national trend. The following are a few examples of such streamlining:

- Queens College is New York City offers 36 "blanket credits" in a new program for adults who have worked in community projects for three years.

- The State University of New York at Stony Brook has allowed some community workers a full two years' credit, and, on occasion, has let them skip the Bachelor of Arts program entirely in order to begin work on a Master's degree.

- Current proposals at the University of Massachusetts and Tufts University would allow students credit for previous experience, providing that they present a written petition outlining the "intellectual growth" acquired from such work and life experience.

- Other schools -- the University of Minnesota for instance, which has a "University Without Walls"--also grant credit (tailored to individual needs) for a wide range of independent work and job experiences.

• The College Level Examination Program (CLEP) offers examinations in five basic areas of liberal arts, plus 29 specific subjects. Grades on these exams are accepted in lieu of course credit at many colleges.

However, new programs alone don't change the problems the older student faces in the actual classroom situation. The Boston women put high priority on designing better courses and awakening teachers to the ways the older, wiser student could contribute more to the classroom. Many teachers, the women noted frankly, were simply not prepared to draw on the older student's assets--especially if the student was at all hesitant about speaking out.

All too often, a woman who has been a mother several times, and perhaps even a grandmother, finds herself listening passively to academic lectures on early childhood education even though she might disagree or have something to contribute. Indeed, she may listen passively until the final exam--and then flunk that test because she doesn't have the knack of academic argument.

If an adult student, who often knows as much of practice as the teacher knows of theory, is encouraged to speak out, the classroom will be a livelier, richer place and the teacher will not run the risk of misjudging anyone. For this reason, the Boston women themselves found small classes and seminars helpful, and advise others to avoid big lectures, whenever possible.

Beyond that, they urge remedial classes for teachers who use excessive academic jargon and arcane allusions in their lectures, creating a needless barrier between the students and the material they want and need to learn. They also urge teachers to explore new ways of eliciting knowledge from their students; ways other than term papers, hour tests, and finals. Sometimes oral reports, personal journals, or papers that argue for a particular course of action can bring out strong sensibilities and opinions that younger students might not match.

ADMISSIONS

The Boston women found that admissions offices often have no clear-cut criteria that apply to adult students who may have no college-board scores or records of extracurricular activity in high school. Moreover, those offices may not be helpful in overcoming the resentment low-income adults feel toward formal education.

Often adults go back to college to add the legitimacy of a degree to knowledge they've already acquired from experience, or to advance themselves in careers they've already chosen. But many women aren't sure whether they need a liberal arts degree or whether more direct vocational training --bookkeeping, health care, or computer programming, for instance--might serve them better. And admissions officials who can't explain clearly a program's goals and purposes are not always the best counselors.

Tufts, as an example of a college that has tried to solve these problems, has delegated admissions decisions on older-women applicants to a committee of eight adult women students already in the program. They judge candidates on the basis of four rather broad considerations: desire to complete a college-degree program, good correlation between individual expectation and the reality of what Tufts offers, ability to do college work, and potential for putting an education to use.

Applicants spend a whole day on campus meeting with the admissions committee and touring the school. Besides formal interviews with two members of the committee and the director of the program, there is ample opportunity for informal talk. Those who don't fit the Tufts program get advice on where to turn.

Those accepted attend an informal session in the spring where they learn about programs at the university, get their transfer credits evaluated, and are able to meet their academic advisers. At a second session in the fall, they get help in choosing and registering for courses.

FINANCIAL AID

Financial aid to adults--not to mention adult women--is an extremely rare item. Most sources of scholarships and stipends, like most colleges, make grants according to guidelines set up for the young single student who is still receiving some support from home. Many agencies automatically consider that a woman's wages are merely supplemental to the family income--a supposition that is far from the truth of most inner-city women's lives. Governmental statistics show that 40 percent of all poor families are headed by women, which puts their needs on a wholly different scale.

The secondary expenses of going back to school are also higher for poor women. Transportation to and from school can run into hundreds of dollars a year. Child care can cost more than a thousand. Added to this are the regular family expenses that aren't met when a woman quits her job to go to school.

Tufts turned out to be one of the few institutions that routinely grant large scholarships to adult women, but its program is small and even these full-tuition grants include no stipend to cover living expenses. The Boston women were making ends meet by working full or part time in addition to going to school, getting loans, or pressuring existing programs.

Almost any financial-aid arrangement turns out to be a patchwork of second-bests, but here are examples of possibilities for the older-woman students around the country:

- The Upper Division Scholarship Competition (UDSC), funded by the Ford Foundation and administered by the College Entrance Examination Board, is perhaps the best private source of funds. It has awarded one million dollars to minority students, but requires them to be graduates of a community or junior college and to be nominated by their college for awards.

- Some states--Michigan and Iowa, for instance--give grants to adults who wish to attend their state universities. In many states, however, Massachusetts among them, state institutions have to make any continuing education programs self-supporting. Ever-increasing pressure to establish free, degree-granting programs for adults in state colleges may succeed in changing this.

- Businesses in all areas can be questioned and pressured for more subsidy of employee education. Private companies fund about half of all adult evening students in the Boston area, for example, and have generally been good about giving employees released time from their jobs--though often on the condition that they study only very specific subjects useful to the company.

• Government programs for students in need of financial aid have multiplied in recent years. Of the biggest of these--Education Opportunities Grants, National Direct Student Loans, and the College Work-Study Program--only the loan program applies to older students. Many smaller programs such as Upward Bound, Talent Search, Special Services, and the Career Opportunity Program focus principally on youth, have lost much of their funding, or are tied to a student's being employed by government agencies.

• Individual college work-study programs can help a great deal if a person can spare the time. At Middlesex Community College in Bedford, Massachusetts, for instance, a student can earn free entry into two courses per semester by working three hours a week at the college.

• Alumnae organizations and private foundations have helped adult undergraduates in some cases. The Business and Professional Women's Foundation makes awards to adult women as a matter of policy, and they can be used for tuition or other needs, but they average only $231 per year. More often, however, such sources have benefited graduate students and special research projects.

These examples should not imply that financial aid is a hopeless pursuit--only that it is difficult for anyone to get without counseling. Up to now, very few institutions have discovered the adult inner-city woman as a class worthy of specific attention.

In recognition of this fact, the Boston women decided to support in their study the concept of a "free-access" school, where the charge per student is not more than 5 percent of the national median income, and at least one third of the students may come from the bottom half of high school classes.

CHILD CARE

Child care, a critical national problem for all parents with small children, becomes crucial for the mother who wants to return to school. In preparing information on child care, the Boston Study women found that day-care facilities are almost nonexistent in Boston-area colleges and universities. Neighborhood-run centers are scarce, and other centers, where they do exist, are usually very costly. Students, faculty, and staff of many campuses are agitating for centers that are free, and open day and night, if necessary, to accommodate evening students.

Meanwhile, Tufts itself provides a combined day-care and all-day kindergarten for up to 60 children, but requires the center to support itself. Fees are based on a sliding scale according to income. Maximum fee is $40 a week--or $1,200 a year for the mother who uses it daily for 30 weeks of a school year. Although welfare agencies currently pay for the children of recipients, this policy may soon end.

Among the handful of promising models for child care at schools elsewhere in the nation is a program at DeAnza College in California. The Women's Educational Program at this public community college accommodates the students' children in its nursery school education courses.

The State University of New York at Old Westbury recently created a child care center for children and infants as young as 12 weeks old.

REMEDIAL HELP AND COUNSELING

The process of getting through college--once older students have managed to get in and fit their lives around all its demands--depends as much on knowing the tricks and style of the game as on native intelligence.

Taking notes, using the library, skimming books for essential facts--all these are tricks one has to know about. Writing papers and exams is a skill one must acquire.

The lesser wiles of survival--sharing notes, clarifying assignments and concepts--are learned by regular students in dormitory rap sessions, while those in continuing education are catching the bus home to cook supper. A place--an Adult students' lounge--for older students to gather and exchange information makes a lot of special counseling unnecessary.

In response to requests, Tufts set up a continuing education seminar, carrying full academic credit, where students can invite outsiders to help them. The most valuable aspect of such seminars has proved to be the informal talk sessions, where women counsel one another and share the traumas of returning to school--the conflicts with job and family, difficulties with scheduling and picking up new skills.

Writing turns out to be the area where the most concentrated help is necessary, although many of the people who need help most are highly verbal and have no problem speaking before large and varied audiences. Many ways of teaching writing have been tried, but those seem to work best which are offered for credit and which concentrate on the organization and focus of papers, rather than on grammar and diction.

Assigning continuing education students to nice, bright young student tutors has rarely been successful. The fact that the tutor is often the age of the older student's own children is discouraging in itself. Furthermore, they usually lack the teaching experience to offer explanations that really explain.

An ideal program would include remedial writing in other courses. A student could then continually get the instructor's help, both in the organization of writing and the understanding of subject matter, without the burden of carrying a course devoted solely to writing.

STUDENT ACTION

The Boston Study closes with the recommendation that adults get together to form student associations, identify their common problems, and press for the particular changes they feel are needed.

They acted on that recommendation by enlarging their own activism to the whole Boston area: at this groups invitation, women from surrounding higher education programs came together for a major conference in February. Out of that conference came many new insights and connections.

Another concrete project of the study group was an illustrated directory of the 70 programs for older women in the Boston area. "The Urban Women's Guide to Higher Education" is a thoroughly nuts-and-bolts document, beginning with four tables of contents in English, Spanish, Portuguese, and Chinese--plus advice on where to go to get the rest translated. The directory contains sections on how to choose a program and how to apply, where to get financial aid, and what to expect after one is admitted; for each of the programs listed, there is specific information-phone numbers, entrance requirements, transportation costs, availability of child care, and a description of program content.

Although the "Guide" does give information about different programs, members of the study group recognized that no amount of printed matter could replace the exchange of firsthand experience. Thus they recently organized a continuing group called WINNERS (The Women's Inner City Resource Service) to reach out to help other women returning to school.

Based in a Boston settlement house and supported by volunteer labor plus a meager foundation grant, WINNERS hopes to help other women choose programs, secure financial aid, and solve recurring problems of child care, transportation, scheduling--and, most of all, confidence.

In their independent volunteer work on the directory, the conference, and WINNERS, the Boston Study group shows what older women students can do--even those with the least traditional advantages--when they band together to change their own lives, and to change the world around them.

*****

"The Boston Study on Higher Education for Urban Women" is available for $3 from WINNERS, 48 Rutland St., Boston, Mass. 02118. For $1 ($5 to institutions), "The Urban Women's Guide to Higher Education (in Metropolitan Boston)" is also available.

Other helpful publications for returning women students are:

- "Continuing Education Programs and Services for Women," Pamphlet 10, Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C. 20402 (70 cents).

- "Women's Higher and Continuing Education: An Annotated Bibliography," by Esther Manning Westervelt and Deborah Fixter, with the assistance of Margaret Comstock. Publications order office, College Entrance Examination Board, Box 592, Princeton, N.J. 08540 ($1.50).

- *The New York Times Guide to Continuing Education in America*, edited by Frances Coombs Thomson and prepared by the College Entrance Examination Board (Quadrangle Books, $4.95).

THE NEED FOR ADULT SUPPORT SERVICES

by

Frank DiSilvestro
Assistant Professor of Continuing Studies
Indiana University

Many events and factors have recently developed which have a profound effect upon the "new majority" of middle and older aged adults and which warrant increased supportive services. Some of these events and factors include the population shift in the United States in terms of age, the change in the United States labor force, personality changes in the middle years, and research which indicates the need for adult counseling and support services.

The United States population is shifting from a high concentration of young people to a population with a greater proportion of middle aged and older people. During the decade of the 70s, for example, the proportion of people between the ages of 0 and 20 is expected to increase by only 0.3 percent, but the 20 to 40 age group is expected to increase by 33.7 percent. The 40 to 60 segment is not expected to change significantly, but the proportion of people over 60 should increase by 15.9 percent. Therefore, the need for health, social, educational, and other services is clearly apparent.

A change in the composition of the labor force is a significant factor which also demonstrates the need for adult support services. The increased participation of women in the labor force is becoming more evident. In the next twenty years, by 1990, the participation of women between the ages of 25-29 is expected to increase approximately 8 percent, and the participation of women between the ages of 45-49 is expected to increase 6 percent. We have also seen a big change in two blocks of working women in the past ten years; women with young children and middle aged women. Many middle aged women have outgrown their first job, the care of children and husbands, and have returned to work, particularly work which does not require heavy strength and can be done by women as well as by men. Support services must be designed to meet the needs of this group of women as they try to fulfill their career goals. Day care services, health services, career counseling services and many others are needed. In addition to women in the labor force, factors such as job obsolescence and premature retirement also affect the labor force and require supportive services for adults involved in these major changes.

Another factor which emphasizes the need for adult support services is the change in the commonly held assumption that middle age is a generally uneventful time span for personal change and development. There is new recognition that the middle years can be a period of conflict, growth, and change. Alan Entine, in an address at Indiana University (1975), referred to the work of Bernice Neugarten and Daniel Levenson,

whose research focuses on the middle aged. Theories of internally caused mid-life crisis are balanced by views which assay the impact of divorce, serious illness, the empty nest, grandparenthood, menopause, and unexpected death upon the middle years. A distinction is made between mid-life crisis (Levenson) which is described by Entine as an unanticipated internal event, and mid-life awareness (Neugarten) which is described as an anticipated internal event. Entine notes that mid-life awareness is the period when one becomes aware, through career, biological or family cues, that one is entering the middle years. The mid-life crisis brings with it the potential for climatic personal change resulting from the emergence of previously suppressed desires and dreams. With mid-life awareness more gradual personal change is likely as one slowly changes perception of time from years ahead to years left to live. Thus, this concept of the middle years creates a dramatic need for supportive services for adults experiencing either anticipated or unanticipated changes.

Finally, an examination of the research concerning adult learning indicates a strong need for supportive services. Adult education dropout rates point to this need. In 1964, for example, Verner and Davis indicated that the study of the adult dropout had been a major problem since as early as 1814. Zahn, in a similar report issued the same year, indicated that the adult dropout problem was the most serious problem of teachers of adults. Novak and Weiant (1960) found that the maintenance of attendance was one of the most serious and baffling problems in adult education programs. Hawkins (1968), in his investigation as to what caused high dropout rates and absenteeism, found that personal reasons were the predominant factors in withdrawal from ABE and GED samples studied. Thus, the need for support services to assist students contemplating dropping out is apparent.

Many noted authors have also written about the need for support services, particularly counseling services. Porter (1970) indicated that just recognizing the need for and importance of counseling adults has not been enough to meet the challenge of providing millions of adults the proper kinds of guidance. He stated further that the development of strong counseling for adults has been complicated by a lack of special training for counselors and teachers of adult students. The need for special training of teachers and counselors was noted in an article by Griswald (1971) who indicated that the needs of adults are different from the needs of younger students. In order to identify adult needs, Hawkins (1968) recommended action research to diagnose needs and expand individual and group counseling for adults. Malcolm Knowles (1971) wrote that the highest expression of the art of the adult educator is a skill in helping adults to discover and become interested in their needs.

The 1974 Report of the Identification and Classification of Competencies Appropriate for Adult Education Teachers issued by the University of Missouri-Kansas City School of Education, found that the two most important behavioral competencies for teachers of ABE learners were: (1), that the teacher be competent in identifying the needs of individual learners and (2), that the teachers be competent in motivating ABE students. The 1973 Final Report of the Adult Basic Education National

Teacher Training Study, also by the University of Missouri-Kansas City, indicated the clear need of a better knowledge and understanding of the range and diversity of ABE student needs and characteristics. The report recommended that these needs be given greater prominance in the planning and implementation of programs. Students in that same study indicated that students drop out primarily because they have too many other problems, or they are not determined enough.

A recommendation of the 1975 Presidents Advisory Council on Adult Education emphasized that adult education should, as a matter of deliberate design, seek out the unique needs and opportunities for its students. Similar needs relating to adult students in selected Adult Basic Education programs in southern Indiana were reported in the final results of a Training Program for Counselors of Adults conducted in 1975 by the School of Continuing Studies, Indiana University. One major need of the adults reached by this project was the development of decision-making skills relating to the educational, training, and life goal aspects of their lives. The results of this research clearly illustrates the expanding need for adult supportive services.

This has been a brief examination of current events and factors which clearly point to the increased need for supportive services for adults. It is anticipated that only when adult needs are specified, will appropriate support services be developed. This paper has attempted to specify such needs.

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SUPPORTIVE SERVICES IN INDIANA
A Sample Listing of Organizations and Agencies

Taken from Directory of Community Services,
Community Service Council of
Metropolitan Indianapolis, Inc.

EDUCATION

Public Schools
Adult Education Division
Career Education Center
Day Adult High School
Special Education Division
Township School District Office
Indiana Public Instruction Department
Adult and Migrant Education Department
Vocational Education Division
Indiana State Advisory Council for Vocational Education
Indiana Vocational Association
Indiana Vocational Technical College
Indiana University
University of Indiana
Purdue University
Indiana Commission for Higher Education
YMCA, YWCA

EMPLOYMENT

In-State Employment Service
In-State Employment Security Division
Veterans Employment Office, Veterans Administration
Rehabilitation Services Board
Manpower Commission
Goodwill Industries
Civil Service Commission
Bureau of Apprenticeships and Training
Job Corps Recruiting Center

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE

Indiana Welfare Department
Public Assistance Division
Food Stamp Division
Industrial Board of Indiana (Workman's Compensation)
Indiana Employment Security Division--
Claims Office (unemployment insurance)
U. S. Health, Education, and Welfare Department
Social Security Division

HEALTH

In-State Board of Health
Health Services Bureau
---Maternity Care
--Veneral Diseases
--Dentistry
Community Health Nursing Bureau
Alcohol Abuse Center
Drug Abuse programs in area hospital
Family Planning Clinic, Planned Parenthood
Community Addiction Services Agency
Veneral Disease Clinic
Veterans Administration Hospital

MENTAL HEALTH

Indiana Mental Health Department
Community Mental Health Center
Mental Health Association
Veterans Administration Hospital

MENTAL HEALTH (CONT'D)

Lutheran Child Welfare Association of Indiana
Alanon Club (Alcoholics)
Alcoholics Anonymous
Community Addiction Services Agency

HOUSING

U. S. Housing and Urban Development Department
--Federal Housing Administration
U. S. Agriculture Department--Farmers Home Administration
Community Interfaith Housing
Salvation Army
U. S. Veterans Administration Regional Office
American National Red Cross (Emergency Housing Assistance)
Presbyterian Housing Program

LEGAL AID AND DEFENSE

Indiana Civil Liberties Union
Indiana Center on Law and Poverty
Indiana Public Defender's Office
Legal Aid Society
Welfare Rights Organization of Indiana

SOCIAL SERVICE

(County) Health and Hospital Corporation
(County) Welfare Department
(County) Domestic Relations Counseling Bureau
Family Service Association
Indiana Council of Churches
Methodist Hospital Neighborhood Health Center
U. S. Army Community Services
Disabled American Veterans National Service Office

SOCIAL SERVICE (CONT'D)

AFL-CIO Community Services Activities
Manpower
Parents Anonymous
Parents Without Partners

SERVICES TO MINORITIES

Associated Migrant Opportunity Services
Hispano - American Center
Indiana Aging and Aged Commission
NAACP
Women's Center

RECREATION

Indiana Department of Natural Resources
National Campers and Hikers Association
Metropolitan Park System
YMCA, YWCA
Sierra Club
Senior Citizens' Center
American Legion
Police Athletic League

SEMINAR VI MATERIALS

Strategies for Effective Adult Counseling

Dr. Elinor Waters, Director
Continuum Center for Adult
Counseling and Leadership Training
Oakland University
Rochester, Micigan

THE PEER COUNSELING APPROACH TO ADULT COUNSELING[1]

by

Elinor B. Waters

This is the story of an adult counseling center and how it changed. During the seven years that the Continuum Center at Oakland University has been in existence it has undergone what might be described as a non-violent revolution. The basic thrust has been toward increasing reliance on group, rather than individual procedures, with trained paraprofessionals serving as group leaders. But let's go back to the beginning and try to look at some of the decisions that have shaped the Center's changing directions.

Although the Continuum Center did not officially begin operation until the Fall of 1965, groundwork had been laid at a conference entitled "Women's Place in this Perplexing Society" held in May, 1963. The message came through loud and clear from the 300 women who attended this conference that they wanted help, that although they did enjoy their mothering roles, they were beginning to ask long before Peggy Lee said it in song, "Is that all there is?"

Oakland's Continuing Education staff listened and tried to design a program that would meet the needs of women. Thanks to a grant from the Kellogg Foundation, the Continuum Center opened its doors in 1965 with Priscilla Jackson as its first director. Since the basic question the planners heard was "What am I good for if I go out in the world?", they developed a program to give adult women the information and counseling support they needed to make meaningful decisions concerning their future.

Initially the program relied heavily on a battery of tests selected by consulting psychologists. After taking the tests, each client had an interview with a psychologist and with one or more of the specialized advisers -- in education, employment, or volunteer work about possible next steps.

By the end of the first year, "alumni" of the program were available and staff asked some of them to come to the first testing session to help alleviate some of the client's tests anxiety by being models of women who had made it through the program. As staff heard requests from clients for more discussion time, they realized that the "alumni" would be valuable discussion leaders if they could spare the time. When asked, many of the discussion leaders indicated not only a willingness to help, but a desire to get training to make them more effective leaders.

As staff continued listening to the clients and evaluating the program they saw a need for more self exploration and more time devoted to interpersonal relations. The basic program, which came appropriately enough to be known as "Investigation Into Identity" encourages participants to understand and accept themselves as a prelude to considering changes in their

[1]Many of the ideas and programs described here are the work of Eleanor Driver, former Director of the Continuum Center, and Sylvia Fink, assistant director and staff psychologist.

life style. The primary helpers in this exploratory part of the Continuum Center program are carefully trained volunteer paraprofessionals. They enable us to offer this self exploration program to approximately 400 adult women a year at various locations in the Detroit metropolitan area.

The rest of this article deals with the ways in which these helpers are selected and trained and with some thoughts on the values of, as well as the problems involved in, using paraprofessionals.

Our volunteers are selected from the client population; sometimes they are self referred, more typically they are recommended by trained group leaders who see them as sensitive, perceptive, non-judgmental, "growable" women. In the selection procedure, prospective applicants are asked to write a statement on why they want to be a group leader and what they feel they could contribute, to take a small battery of tests, and to participate in a group interview.

The test battery is made up of an adaptation of the Carkhuff Index of Discrimination,[2] an incomplete sentences test, and a request to write an open ended response to a hypothetical situation. A brief word on the rationale for each of these measures: Carkhuff states as a basic principle of selection "The best index of a future criterion is a previous index of that criterion."[3] Therefore in selecting potential helpers we look for people who seem to have some initial feeling for which response, of several suggested responses to a statement of a problem, would be most helpful.

The incomplete sentences test is used primarily to screen out people whose personal problems might interfere with their being effective helpers. The hypothetical case we present involves a not unusual situation in which a participant shares her intense feelings of depression and frustration shortly before the group is scheduled to break up. In evaluating the responses we look for such things as the extent to which the applicant is able to help the client articulate her feelings and reflect them back to her, whether or not she deals with the time issue, mentions possible ways of clarifying or working on the problem before the next session, and whether or not she takes note of the rest of the group in her response.

We introduced the group interview into the selection procedure because most of our work is done in groups and we want to give potential leaders an idea of how we work. We also wish to observe how they function in a group situation. In a typical group interview, six to eight applicants meet with two staff members. Each applicant is asked to select one person in the group whom she doesn't know and to interview her in such a way that she and the group will get to know the person chosen. After the initial exchange, we ask questions of both the interviewer and the interviewee -- e.g., what did you learn about this person? did she ask questions that would enable the group to know you? were you comfortable with each other? In the process, we have found we can assess listening skills, openness and willingness to take risks.

[2]Carkhuff, Robert R. Helping and Human Relations, Volume I, Selection and Training, New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969, pp. 114-123.

[3]Ibid, p. 85

Feedback to interviewers from staff members as well as other applicants during the interview provides a small sample of our approach to training, and also enables each person to develop a tentative agenda for herself of what she would like to work on if she is accepted for training.

For those who are selected, the program has several general objectives (1) to reinforce potential group leaders with their already existing qualities of genuineness, empathy and non-possessive warmth (the counseling trinity), (2) to develop their communications skills, and (3) to help them become facilitators who can encourage problemed people to think through alternative courses of action, and hopefully to make some initial steps.

Toward these ends the training program combines didactic and experiential procedures within a group dynamics theoretical framework. The approach is an eclectic one, using techniques drawn from adult education, traditional group psychotherapy, and humanistic psychology. Participants are encouraged to gain insight into their own characteristic behaviors as a prelude to becoming effective helpers.

In addition to the pre-service training mentioned above, there is continuous ongoing training for those trainees who continue to work for the Continuum Center. (We have relatively little control over the ongoing training given to teachers and counselors from other agencies who have taken our training.) Before each session of the Beginning Personal Growth program group leaders meet with a staff member to evaluate the effectiveness of the previous session, to discuss any problems which have come up in the groups or between co-leaders, and to go over the agenda for the day. These regular "clinicing" sessions are supplemented by three or four days of special in-service training per year.

While we have not done any formal research on the effectiveness of our "peer counselors," the system does seem to work. It appears that group leaders serve as role models for participants. They are examples of women who have made some changes in their lives -- and they are willing to disclose many of these changes -- yet they are not distant professionals who appear "out of reach" to the majority of women present. Being close to the problems they can hear them and empathize. There is some danger related to this closeness, of course, such as the temptation to say "let me tell you how I handled that problem," but we find relatively little advice giving on the part of our group leaders.

We have heard of objections to the use of paraprofessionals in counseling, such as "Nonprofessionals shouldn't be dealing with emotional problems," or "Nonprofessionals don't have the internalized values of a professional discipline and may get drunk with power." In actual practice, these have not proved to be realistic worries. In our own Personal Growth program, we have built in a back up system of staff support for our group leaders through daily clinicing sessions, as well as providing follow up counseling for participants on both a group and individual basis.

Most of the work in the area of peer counseling has been with mature women acting as helpers for other mature women. Recently, however, we have begun training other groups of people to serve as counselors for their peers, including alcoholics, the "aging religious" (nuns), retirees and leaders of several women's groups. In all these cases, we feel that the intimate knowledge of the particular clientele served, which comes from being a part of it, is a real advantage. Let us make clear, however, that it's not just a question of "it takes one to know one" -- these leaders have been trained in communications and helping skills.

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"DOWN WITH THE MAINTENANCE STAGE": CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR ADULTS*

by

Jane Goodman
Sylvia Walworth and
Elinor Waters

Continuum Center for adult counseling and
leadership training
Division of Continuing Education
Oakland University
Rochester, Michigan 48063

Until recently most developmental psychologists have ignored the long span of life which can loosely be called "adulthood." Indeed Erikson (1950), Neugarten (1968), and Havighurst (1953) are the only major theorists who have dealt with the developmental tasks of the middle years of life. However, the recent increased interest in adult psychology, combined with drastic technological and societal changes, has led to concern with the career development of adults.

Whether by choice or necessity, men and women from all socio-economic levels are changing jobs, questioning their life style, returning to school and, in the process, sometimes seeking counseling. Counselors who are trained to think of the search for identity and career decision-making as developmental tasks of adolescents or young adults may need some specialized tools and approaches to deal with their adult clients. This new view was aptly stated by Ginzberg (1971):

> "Middle age is no longer necessarily a period of hopes abandoned and of reconciliation prior to entering old age. It has become a period of new options that provide an increasing number of men and women with new opportunities for developing new sources of satisfaction and meaning."

While Ginzberg talks of new options in middle age, Erikson speaks more broadly of generativity versus stagnation as the developmental task of the middle years. If counselors are to be helpful to their adult clients, they need to expand their repertoire of interventions which encourage generativity and to rethink some traditional ideas about the stages of vocational development. Instead of utilizing a linear approach to career development, counselors could aim for a cyclical approach which recognizes adult career change (Schlossberg, 1970).

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The rest of this article discusses a six session career development program of the Continuum Center for Adult Counseling and Leadership Training which is designed for adults considering job changes or re-entry into the educational-vocational world. It postulates a cyclical approach to career development.

GOAL OF THE CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

> "Give me a fish and I'll eat for today. Teach me to fish and I'll eat for the rest of my life."

The above parable embodies the basic thrust of the Continuum Center's Career Development course. The goal of the course is to help participants to become more self-directed in exploring and planning their careers, and to provide them with the necessary tools so that they can be self-directed. To implement this goal the course draws upon the concepts of McDaniels (1974), Super (1957), Holland (1966), Gelatt (1962), Tiedeman (1966) and Friel (1974).

In organizing the program, career development was broadly defined. McDaniel's view of the need for total life-style planning influenced us to encourage participants to consider their leisure as well as educational and vocational preferences. Since career decision making involves the implementation of an individual's self-concept (Super, 1957), a basic component of the course is self-exploration and assessment. Toward that end much emphasis is given to the process of values clarification. Because the underlying goal of the course is to teach participants a process of vocational exploration, emphasis is also placed on techniques for gathering and personalizing information. Holland's division of the world of work into six areas (Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising and Conventional) is used as a unifying classification scheme for presenting occupational information (Holland, 1966).

Since each participant's goal is to make some decisions about his/her own career planning, considerable attention is given to the decision-making process. Gelatt (1962) suggests that decisions are essentially cyclical:

> "...the strategy requires knowing the alternatives and outcomes, applying a value scale, and evaluation. The decision may lead to collecting more data or to outcomes which alter the situation and require the application of a new strategy, or the outcome may alter the objectives or achieve the purpose. A decision can be final only in the sense that an immediate goal is reached. But the achievement of this may itself influence or modify other related choices. The counselor's role in this process is to assist the student through the cycle."

To assist participants in learning this cycle we have developed the "Arrow Decision-Making Process" (Figure 1) which serves as a framework for our course. Friel's concept of the necessity of expansion followed by a narrowing of career choices prior to decision-making was useful in developing this schema. A detailed description of the utilization of this framework is included in the course agenda.

CLIENTELE AND FORMAT OF THE COURSE

As has been indicated the career development program of the Continuum Center serves adults. These adults range in age from their mid 20s to their mid 50s. In terms of education, most have at least some college work, with fewer having only a high school diploma and a small number having post graduate work. Generally, the participants are married with children and the family income is above $10,000 per year. However, a significant number of the female enrollees are either recently divorced or widowed and for them economic crisis may be iminent.

The Continuum Center offers both day and evening programs in Career Development and the clientele of these programs differs. In the day program, offered for women only, the typical participant is not currently employed. She may have both the time and the money for vocational training but faces a basic decision as to whether, and if so when, she wishes to re-enter the work world. Frequently, she is evaluating the amount of time which she feels she can be away from her family and the degree of commitment she is willing to make to her own career.

The night program, typically, serves men and women who are currently employed but dissatisfied with their work situation. Generally, these participants are deciding whether to risk a career change and may be weighing current job security and family responsibilities against their desire for a more fulfilling job or greater personal enrichment.

Although the day and night courses have different populations, both groups require a careful exploration of values and priorities as well as an appraisal of economic realities. Therefore, the basic format and thrust of these programs is the same.

Each contains six, three-hour sessions meeting on a once or twice a week basis. At the sessions, a participant spends about half of the time in the large group and the other half in small groups of 5-8 members. Each small group has one or two trained group leaders to facilitate the discussions, and help participants personalize the information given in the large group presentations.

Fundamental to each session's format is the Arrow Decision-Making Process (Figure 1) which serves as a referent for all presentations and discussions. Additionally the process is used by participants each session. Included in the detailed agenda which follows are time allocations, possible information resources and the specific utilization of the Arrow Decision-Making Process. Following the agenda is our rationale for this format, a discussion of adaptations made in standard materials to meet the career development needs of adults and an evaluation of our program.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT AGENDA

SESSION I

Goal: To provide an overview of the career program, some experience in decision making, and to form permanent groups.

A. Introduction of staff, explanation of program mechanics and overview of the course. (30 minutes)

Explain the components of the Arrow Decision-Making Process (figure 1) which serves as the framework for the course. Indicate that in each session participants will collect information about themselves and/or the larger world via vocational interest inventories, worksheets and discussions related to past and present experiences, future goals, assessment of individual strengths and skills, and speakers and vocational/educational resources. Participants will assess all information gathered in terms of their values, establish priorities, make tentative choices, and explore alternatives. Throughout the course, participants will be making decisions and taking action. Emphasize that this decision-making process is cyclical, learnable, and self-directed.

B. Participants' Goal Statements (15 minutes)

Ask participants to write brief answers to the following questions:

1. What do you hope to get from this course?
2. What is your educational background?
3. What skills and abilities do you have?

C. Levels of Decisions (5 minutes)

Describe various levels of decision-making as based on the work of Varenhorst (1973).

D. Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (1 hour)

Briefly explain SCII (Strong-Campbell, 1974), placing particular emphasis on its testing of interests, not abilities or aptitudes, and administer the inventory.

E. Group Formation

While participants are taking the SCII assign them to groups according to their educational level, interests and/or readiness to make educational/vocational decisions as ascertained by their goal statements (See B above). Upon the completion of SCII, announce group members and leaders, and explain the basis on which groups were formed.

F. Forced Choice Exercise (30 minutes)

Discuss this activity as an example of participants' decision-making style. Indicate that choices made can be linked to occupation. Ask participants to indicate whether they consider themselves to be more: a loner or a grouper, a spender or a saver, experimental or traditional, or leader or a follower, impulsive or deliberate.

G. Assignment of Homework (10 minutes)

1. Self Directed Search Occupations Finder (Holland, 1970)

   a. Explain Holland's Six-letter Code System

   b. Instruct participants to disregard their current training, education and experience, and cross out all occupations which would be unacceptable to them, underline those occupations which would be interesting to them, star five occupations about which they would like more information, and write one thing which intrigues them about the starred occupations.

2. Complete the section of their Continuum Center's workbook entitled "Decision Decisions" which deals with their past.

H. Wrap-up in Small Groups (30 minutes)

Participants discuss the choices which they made in the forced choice activity, their goals for the career development program, and whether there are any links between their choices and their goals.

SESSION II

Goal: To identify personal and work-related values and interests and to begin exploring sources of educational and occupational information.*

A. Overview of ession and homework assignment (10 minutes)

Briefly describe session's format and those components of Arrow to be covered. Homework:

1. Self-Directed Search Inventory (Holland, 1970).
2. Chapters 1-4 Catalyst booklet, "Planning for Work" (1973).
3. Job Description Form. Ask participants to think about a job they might like to hold and a person holding such a job to interview for more information.

B. Occupational/Educational Resources (10 minutes)

Describe the Catalyst series of occupational, educational and work campaign booklets which are geared to assist adult women, particularly, as they re-enter the world of education or work. (In the night program, indicate the series' usefulness to adults in general, and ask men to adjust to the female pronouns).

C. Definition and discussion of values (30 minutes)

Define the word "value" as used in the course and encourage discussion of values as related to four areas: interpersonal relationships, work, leisure time and personal taste. Emphasize the idiosyncratic nature of values and their implications for career decision-making.

D. "20 Things You Love to do" Activity (1 hour)

Ask participants to list 20 things they really like to do and code them as follows:

a. A-Activities which you prefer to do alone
P-Activities which you prefer to do with people
$-Activities costing over $5 each time you do them
R-Activities involving risk--emotional, intellectual or physical
I-Activities which you initiate
PL-Activities which require planning
T-Activities which you would enjoy more with more training

b. Star the five activities which you would least like to give up.

c. Indicate the date you last engaged in the five starred activities.

d. Indicate one value for each of the five starred activities.

Explain the relationship between the codes in "a" above and the forced choice activity done in session I (e.g., A/P to loner/grouper and I to leader/follower). Discuss the values of the identified activities as they might relate to future educational/vocational goals and/or to current vocational enrichment.

E. Small Group Discussion (1 hour)

Participants are helped to find patterns or themes in their codings, and to identify relevant personal values. Values and themes are compared to the list of preferred occupations from the SDS Occupations Finder for possible matching values or themes.

*Occupational and educational resource materials are available at this and all remaining sessions for participants to browse through prior to each session. Generally included are: Occupational Outlook Handbook, and Dictionary of Occupational Titles, Catalyst series, local college catalogues, materials on volunteer opportunities.

SESSION III

Goal: To present educational/vocational resources, and to illustrate the effect of personal values upon decision-making.

A. Overview of session and homework assignment (10 minutes)

Briefly describe session's format and those components of the Arrow to be covered. Homework:

1. Complete job description form.
2. Chapters 5, 6, 7 of Catalyst booklet "Planning for Work."

B. Occupational Resource (15 minutes)

Explain the occupational categories and the meaning of the D.O.T. codes, particularly the Data, People, Things digits. Refer participants to their preferred occupations from the SDS Occupations Finder and their respective D.O.T. numbers. Indicate that participants could use the D.O.T. backwards, that is, create their ideal number and see which occupations the number describes. Briefly outline the type of information provided in the Occupational Outlook Handbook.

C. Classification System for Careers (15 minutes)

Discuss Super's concept of the components of a job in terms of activity, level and job setting. Some of the charts in Tennyson (1960) are useful adjuncts here since they illustrate the relationship between personal preferences and job setting, and the impact of training on job level.

D. Mid Life Career Changes (1 hour)

Have two people describe their own mid life career changes with emphasis on the values and reality factors which influenced their decisions. Select persons to tell their stories whose paths closely match that of participants. Optional tool for use here is the hypothetical story contained in "Decisions and Outcomes" (Gelatt et al, 1973) which also links personal values to vocational decisions.

E. A Profile of Your Time: How do you spend it? (20 minutes)

Ask participants to fill in worksheet, "A Profile of Your Time: How Do you Spend it?" (figure 2) indicating how they currently spend a typical weekday and how they would like to change their time allocations. Encourage realistic considerations of steps to attain their desired time schedule.

F. Small Group Discussion (1 hour)

Discuss worksheets with emphasis on the steps needed to attain the desired changes. React to the speakers, looking for similarities or differences to participant's own situation and their feelings about their situation.

G. Homework (assigned in small group)

Participants begin to write their own story as to their pending educational/vocational decision using the Arrow Decision-Making Process as a framework. Complete by session VI.

SESSION IV

Goal: To provide first-hand information on the world of work and school, and to explore the feelings related to educational/vocational decisions.

A. Overview of session and home work assignment (10 minutes)

Briefly describe format of session and indicate components of the Arrow to be covered. Homework:

1. Complete Catalyst booklet "Planning for Work."
2. Complete Financial Worksheet.
3. Write resume.

B. Resource People (1 hour)

Provide guest speakers to discuss employment trends, educational opportunities and human resource needs and to give information on resume writing and employment interviewing. Speakers will vary according to needs of participants.

C. Small Group Discussion (1 hour)

Participants discuss their findings from job description form and explore reality factors affecting their return to school, work or career change. Practice in responding assertively or other forms of role playing may be helpful in preparing for employment or admissions interviews, or discussions with significant others.

D. Long Range Goals: 2 Days, 5 Years From Now (20 minutes)

Participants complete worksheet "Long Range Goals: 2 Days, 5 Years From Now" (Figure 3), indicating how they would like to spend their time five years from now.

E. Small Group Discussion (30 minutes)

Assist participants in outlining the steps necessary to meet their long range goals, explore alternative courses of action and encourage initial action steps.

SESSION V

Goal: To enable participants to assess themselves in relati_ t< others in the work world, and to compare their physical, intellectual emotional attributes and values to the corresponding requirements of occupations.

A. Overview of session and homework assignment (10 minutes)

Briefly describe session's format and those components of Arrow to be covered. Homework:

1. "On Evaluating a Career Possibility" worksheet,
2. Read Decision Making Process in workbook "Decisions, Decisions".
3. Complete their own story (see agenda 3 - F).

B. Personnel Placement Test (30 minutes)

Administer the Wonderlic (1970) as an example of a personnel placement test. Have participants score their own test. Emphasize possible learnings such as areas of strengths and weakness.

C. Small Group Discussion (20 minutes)

Allow participants to share their reactions to a timed testing situation and to their scores, provide information as to adult basic skills courses and learning laboratories as needed.

D. Occupational Requirements (30 minutes)

Describe Carkhuff's (1974) concept of three areas of occupational requirements, e.g., the physical, emotional and intellectual aspects of a given job, and that the requirements of the job can be matched to an individual's physical, intellectual and emotional attributes. Provide examples of occupational requirements and possible matches.

E. Strong Campbell Interest Inventory (30 minutes)

Return participants SCII profiles. Explain the three basic components of the profile, emphasizing Holland's linking of personality type to preferred work environment to occupational requirements. Briefly review Holland's six classifications.

F. Small Group Discussion (1 hour)

Assist participants in interpretation of their SCII profiles, discuss the occupational requirements of high and low score occupations and their degree of congruence to each participant. Utilize educational and vocational resources as necessary.

SESSION VI

Goal: To review the Arrow Decision Making-Process as a tool for future use and to share individual plans of action in the small groups.

A. Overview of session (10 minutes)

Briefly describe format of session and indicate that all components of the Arrow will be reviewed.

B. Arrow Decision-Making Process (1 hour)

Trace through an educational or vocational decision utilizing session by session inputs, fill in all components of the Arrow. Indicate that while the process is generally applicable, the outcome, decision as to next steps, is effected by the individuality of the inputs. Reiterate the cyclical nature of the decision-making process.

C. Small Group Discussion (1 hour, 20 minutes)

Ask participants to trace their own steps in the decision-making process, review homework and action steps taken during course, identify personal

themes or learnings, relevant values. Encourage participants to make a commitment to the group as to next steps.

D. Course Evaluation Sheet (30 minutes)

Have participants complete evaluation sheet for career development program.

RATIONALE AND ADAPTATIONS

As the agenda shows, the Center's career development program generally uses standard tests and materials rather than custom-designed ones. What is different in most cases, however, is the manner in which these materials are adapted to meet the needs of an adult clientele and the milieu in which they are investigated and discussed.

We have found the combination of large and small group time to be extremely helpful to our participants. The large group presentations maximize information giving and, in the small groups, participants have a chance to talk about how the ideas and information presented relate to their own particular situation. Such sharing is facilitated by the fact that the group leaders are peers of the clients -- men and women who have been through a Continuum Center program as clients and then been selected and trained in counseling techniques and principles of group work. (For more information on the procedures for selecting and training peer counselors, see Waters, 1972). But the groups offer much more than the realization that other people are also dissatisfied with their jobs, or worried about being obsolete or forgetting how to study. At each session participants are encouraged to make a commitment to their group as to what action steps they will take before the next meeting and report on their progress. In this way group members serve as a source of encouragement and support for each other. Often group members share the information gathering tasks and pool their resources.

While the instructors present educational-vocational resources, participants are encouraged to do specific fact-finding for themselves. This is because the instructors cannot possible have all the information needed by such a diverse group of clients, and also because this approach helps to develop the kind of autonomy and self-direction which is a primary goal of the Continuum Center's program.

Also contributing to this goal of self-direction is the Gestaltist approach used by the group leaders who encourage participants to speak in terms of "I choose to" rather than "I have to." This seems to foster individual responsibility and to eliminate many of the "yes, buts" which pervaded our previous career development courses. By taking relatively small steps during the program (such as completing the Job Description Form or gathering information about a particular school program) participants eliminate some of their own roadblocks. Apparently the reinforcement of successfully taken small steps encourages people to consider and try larger steps. In a sense they have established their own track record. It is a track record resulting from their use of skills, such as, gathering and personalizing information, clarifying values, making choices, considering alternatives and taking appropriate action.

Skills practice is incorporated into the career development program through our adaptation of standard materials. For example, in using Holland's Self Directed Search (1970) we find it helpful for participants to use the Occupations Finder prior to taking the inventory. As assigned, the Finder serves as an expansion tool increasing a participant's occupational vocabulary. Additionally, the participant identifies his or her likes and dislikes, makes choices, ranks these choices, clarifies values, and begins the Arrow Decision-Making Process again by seeking information on the five chosen occupations.

Also using the Finder first seems to minimize the anxiety felt by some adults in taking the Self-Directed Search and lessens the tendency to see only the undesirable jobs in their resultant code. This "negative selectivity" or propensity to focus on jobs they would not like to do, or are not trained to do, is lessened because they have already learned how to examine a job in terms of its components, not just its title. Finally, for the participants who are currently employed, this use of the Finder sometimes leads to the discovery that their strong occupational preferences remain in their current employment area. They can then examine what about their present situation is creating dissatisfaction and what steps can realistically be taken to improve their situation.

The Job Description Form used in our course contains a series of standard questions regarding an occupation; e.g., educational requirements, salary, necessary skills, etc. Again the important difference for our participants is that they are seeking this information first hand. Action is implicit in this assignment. Research must be done to locate a person to interview, and decisions made as to how to contact this person when to interview them. The advantages of this type of research are: the reinforcement of having taken action, the perspective gained from a site visit, an assessment of the necessary skills and a potential future contact. For women who have been out of the job market, this visit provides an experience in talking to someone about a job, and in a sense, a chance to rehearse for a future job interview.

Values clarification is a pervasive and cumulative component of our agenda. Two of the strategies used are adapted from Simon et al (1972) -- The "Forced Choice" exercise and the "Twenty Things You Love To Do" strategy. Here the chief difference is that the items of the "Forced Choice" parallel the codes of the "Twenty Things You Love To Do" and have implications for education-vocational planning. The code T, for more training, is included to suggest avenues of possible career change, ways to supplement an income or means of personal enrichment.

The remaining codings, the starring, dating and self-coding, identify those activities of greatest importance to the participant. These starred activities, and indeed the total list, are reflective of a participant's basic needs and life style. The self-coding frequently reveals values which a satisfactory career would need to include. The dating allows a participant to examine how recently time has been given to the pursuit of basic likes and suggests changes in time allocations for increased personal satisfaction.

Other values clarification exercises include the use of two worksheets, "Profile of My Time: How Do I Spend It" and "Long Range Goals: 2 Days, 5 Years from Now", and the writing of the participant's own career

stories. These exercises are cumulative; a participant progresses from desired changes in a typical day, a short range goal, to setting long range goals for five years hence. By writing their own stories, the participant assesses these goals in terms of his or her reality factors, identifies potential values conflicts or problem areas, and designs a strategy which is most likely to lead to the desired combination of vocational, educational, and leisure time pursuits.

CONCLUSION

Although the Continuum Center has been offering adult career development courses for the past several years, our current program appears to better meet the needs of our adult clientele than did earlier ones. The emphasis on self-direction seems to encourage participants to set their own goals and ask more personally relevant questions. The stories which they write about themselves illustrate a clear understanding of their individual needs and values, and generally contain appropriate action strategies. They take more action steps than did participants in our previous programs and also seem more positive about the actions taken. For example, the man who decides to stay in his present job for security reasons and to take on the leadership of a youth club can see this as a way of implementing his values. The woman who decides to cut back on her volunteer work in order to return to school or take a job is able to relate this to her long range needs and goals.

We think that the satisfaction expressed by the adults in our program derives from their having learned a decision-making process and having a supportive milieu in which to practice it. These two essential ingredients can be duplicated with other adult populations, while the exact agenda and format of our program need not be. Depending on the institutional setting and the needs of the adult population to be served, appropriate modifications could be made. For example, we place participants in small groups because we find a supportive atmosphere is created in these small groups and because we have a number of well trained group leaders who can facilitate discussion. You might prefer to establish leaderless groups or not to include small groups and encourage open discussion in the large group.

Our groups are formed on the basis of educational level, because we have an educationally heterogeneous group and have found that problems arise when the educational levels within a group are extremely diverse. If your group is more educationally homogeneous, you may wish to group on other bases or let the participants select their own groups.

We imagine that such logistics are not the crucial issue. What seems to be important is to create an atmosphere in which it is acceptable for adults to seek help and to have some kind of a systematic approach by which counselors can deliver services to their adult clients. There will surely be more of them in the years ahead.

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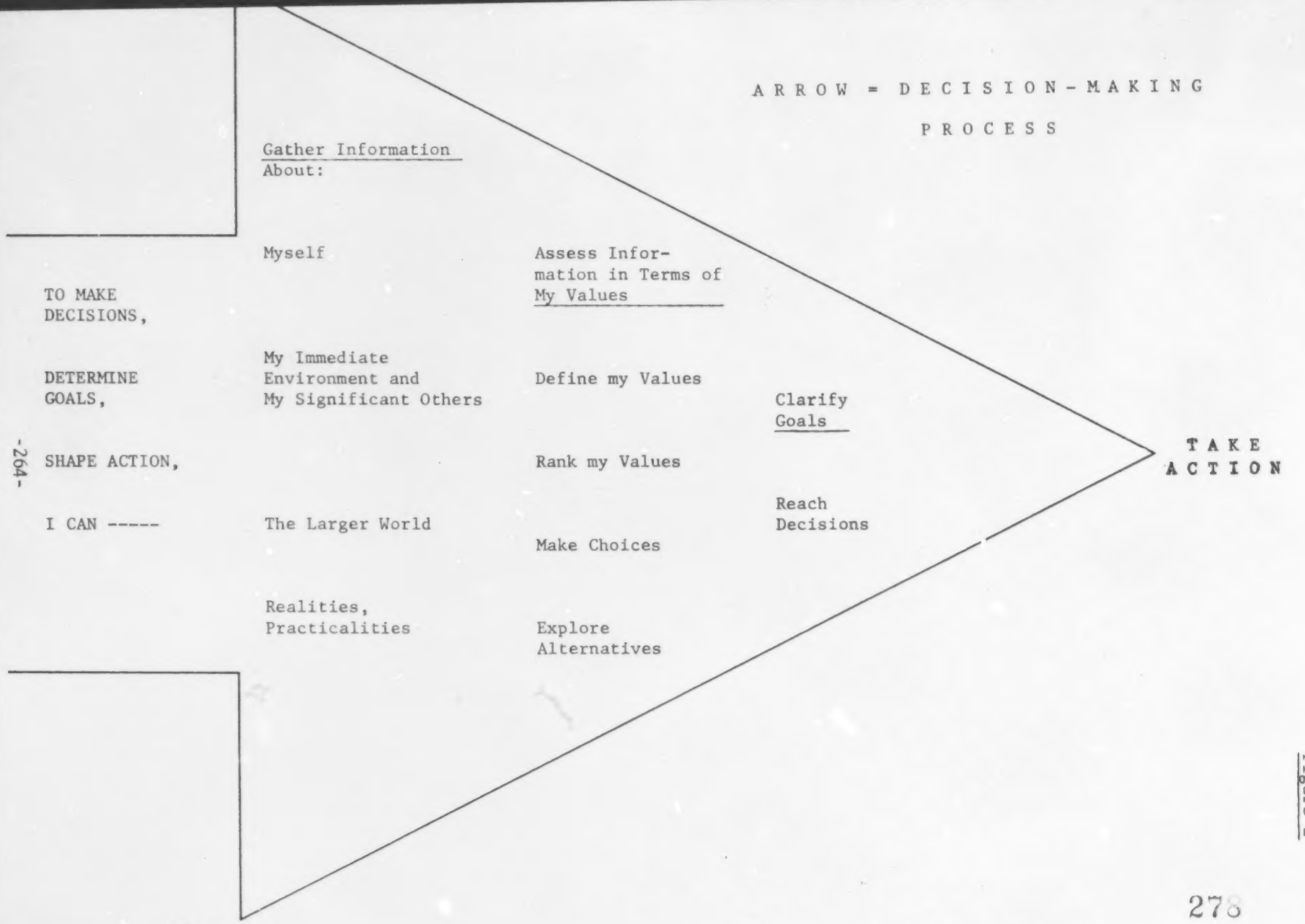

ARROW = DECISION-MAKING PROCESS
Gather Information About:
Myself
My Immediate Environment and My Significant Others
The Larger World
Realities, Practicalities
Assess Information in Terms of My Values
Define my Values
Rank my Values
Make Choices
Explore Alternatives
Clarify Goals
Reach Decisions
TAKE ACTION
TO MAKE DECISIONS,
DETERMINE GOALS,
SHAPE ACTION,
I CAN -----

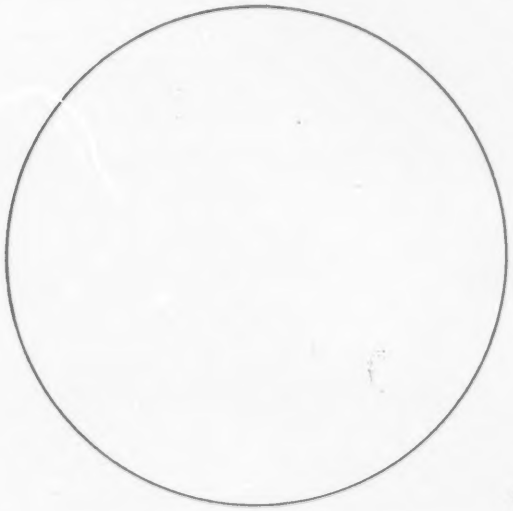
Figure 1

Figure 4

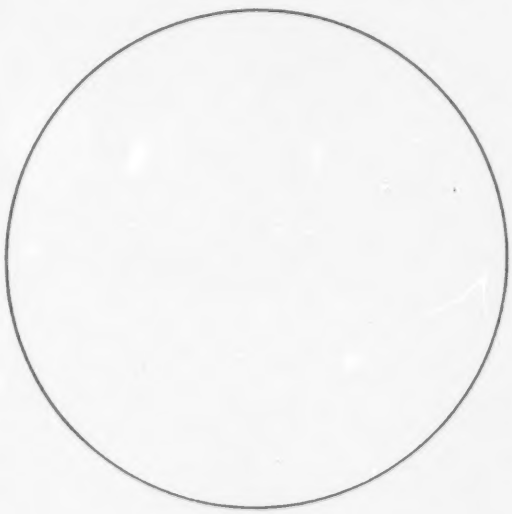
A PROFILE OF YOUR TIME: HOW DO YOU SPEND IT?

How do you spend your time now? (List activities of typical weekday)	% of time for each activity	How would you like to spend your time?	% of time for each

Current Time Distribution



Desired Time Distribution



Long Range Goals
2 days, 5 years from now

WHAT WOULD YOU REALLY LIKE TO DO?

Fill in the spaces below as fully as your imagination permits. (Think in terms of family, occupation, leisure, education and retirement.)

Day #1

Day #2

1. What are the values for you in these days? _____

_____

_____

2. What do you see as your goals? _____

_____

3. What are the obstacles to meeting your goals? _____

_____

_____

4. What are some alternative ways to attain your goals?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

SEMINAR VI
Strategies for Effective Adult Counseling
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